DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 266 105 SP 027 020

AUTHOR Dupuis, Mary M., Ed.
TITLE Reflections on Teacher Education. Monograph III.
INSTITUTION Pennsylvania State Univ., University Park. Div. of Curriculum and Instruction.
PUB DATE Sep 85
NOTE 127p.
AVAILABLE FROM Division of Curriculum and Instruction, 150 Chambers Building, University Park, PA 16802 ($7.00).
PUB TYPE Reports - Descriptive (141)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC06 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Comparative Analysis; Cross Cultural Training; *Educational Philosophy; Foreign Countries; Higher Education; Minimum Competency Testing; *School Effectiveness; *Teacher Education

ABSTRACT

The following papers that reflect on problems facing teacher education are included in this monograph: (1) "Toward a New Model of Teacher Education" (Henry J. Hermanowicz); (2) "Recent Research on the Beliefs of Teachers and its Importance for Teacher Education" (Robert H. Mayer); (3) "The Dialogue of Democracy: Its Form, Content, and Implications for Teacher Education" (R. Keith Hillkirk); (4) "The School Effectiveness Program: Implications for Teacher Education" (Carol Castellini); (5) "Staff Development: We Must Cultivate Our Garden" (Gregory J. Nolan); (6) "Competency Testing for Teachers: A Quick Solution to the Complex Problems Facing Education" (Joyce G. Sipple); (7) "Teacher Education in Agriculture" (Jim Howard); (8) "Teacher Education in Japan: A Cross-Cultural Perspective" (David M. Berman); (9) "A Comparative Look at Teacher Education in the United States, Latin America, and the United Kingdom" (Richard Neely and William Campbell); and (10) On Teacher Education in Iceland" (Gudrun Geirsdottir). (JD)

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ED266105

The College of Education

The Pennsylvania State University

Division of Curriculum & Instruction

Monograph III

Reflections on Teacher Education

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September 1985

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Introduction

Mary M. Dupuis

The Pennsylvania State University

Teacher education is again in the forefront of intellectual discussion, as a result of the numerous national reports beginning with A Nation at Risk. Those of us engaged in the process of preparing teachers face new challenges to our programs' integrity and credibility. We need to re-examine the bases on which our programs have been developed and to confront the issues raised by legislators and columnists, representative of concerns within society at large. Only when we can demonstrate the philosophical and pedagogical soundness of our programs can we expect to improve their credibility and protect their integrity.

With the thesis that re-examination of the issues alive again in teacher education, and indeed education at all levels, is a good thing, the authors of the papers included here began their work. We felt the need to study in depth some questions which have been in the literature for many years. We discovered some new names for old pedagogical concerns and new approaches to dealing with them. We discovered, too, that our questions reached across the world to areas in which American education has had great influence as well as those from which we ourselves have learned much. We offer these papers as reflections of the issues confronting us all, with the hope that the resulting dialogue will have mutual benefits.

Our theoretical base is that teacher education is a synergistic process, beginning early in a teacher training program and continuing throughout a teacher's career. The stages move from Awareness through Exploration to Establishment, traditionally the end of a four-year college degree. General education, foundations courses and early field experiences characterize the Awareness stage. Methodology, content courses in depth and concurrent field experience characterize the Exploration stage. The Establishment phase occurs primarily in the full-time student teaching experience. The Maintenance stage, now often called induction,

emphasizes confirming the teaching commitment and teaching skills during the first year or two of teaching. Renewal, the final and continuing stage, is the process of continuing professional development we deal with as inservice or staff development in the schools. (More detail on this model is given in Trueblood and Dupuis, 1981.)

Our reflections on this model of teacher education led us to a number of issues running the gamut from Exploration, the foundations of education, through Renewal and the continuing development of teachers.

Our keynote is a paper by Henry J. Hermanowicz, Dean of the College of Education, The Pennsylvania State University. Hermanowicz reflects on his long involvement in teacher education to put the current discussion in historical and philosophical perspective. The proposal for reconceptualizing teacher education is provocative and enticing. The papers which follow are, in part, responses to the issues he raises. However, his proposals stand independent of the current papers as ones which deserve thorough exploration.

We continue with two papers on teacher beliefs, the foundation of a teacher education program. Mayer discusses current research into the nature of teacher beliefs and the impact of teacher belief systems on teacher practices in the classroom. His suggestions for teacher education programs focus on the need for prospective teachers to develop a personal philosophy of education and some ways to help them do it. A companion paper, Hillkirk's discussion of civic education, focuses on a particular set of beliefs: beliefs in the democratic process. Hillkirk uses Butts' decalogue to describe the democratic belief system, then suggests the importance of such beliefs in prospective teachers. He also describes some ways of implementing the development of such beliefs in a teacher education program.

Castellini focuses our attention on the school, in her discussion of the Edmonds School Effectiveness research. She describes the process in use in practicing schools, then offers specific suggestions for teacher education programs. Her

analysis suggests that characteristics of effective teachers can be encouraged and developed in preservice teacher education.

Nolan follows with a overview of staff development as it impacts on teacher education. Nolan uses the model of teacher education to focus on practicing teachers and their need for continuing professional growth. He presents two models for staff development and reviews literature using each of them. His conclusion is embedded in his title: we must cultivate our garden, a useful metaphor for the continuing development of teachers.

Sipple provides us with reflections on a timely and specific topic, competency testing of teachers. She uses current practice and the literature to raise questions related to the basis for such testing, its processes, and its impact upon teacher education programs and certification. She speaks specifically to concerns for minority teacher candidates and the narrow focus of current tests.

Howard concludes the reflections on teacher education in the United States with a discussion of the special problems of training teachers for vocational agriculture. The area of vocational education is not well represented in current discussions of teacher education. Howard provides an overview of the topic and identifies the special issues which need further discussion and research.

Cross Cultural Reflections in Teacher Education are included in three papers dealing with widely varying parts of the world. Berman begins this section with a view of contemporary Japanese education and its origins in post war Japan. The tensions between national, centralized education and local control, and between traditional Japanese values and the American democratic and individualized educational system developed during the Occupation, help to illuminate characteristics of this system to which the U.S. schools have recently been compared.

Neely and Campbell summarize an extensive seminar comparing teacher education in the United States, the United Kingdom, and Latin America. A number

of similar problems are discussed, including low teacher morale and lack of professional status. The cultural differences between the U.S. and UK on one hand and the developing countries of Latin America on the other cause some serious differences in the mission of teacher education as well as its content.

Our final paper concerns teacher education in Iceland. Geirsdottir sees Iceland as a microcosm of the problems discussed in earlier papers: different certifying processes, questions of general education and the place of field experience, and, above all, developing teachers to meet widely varying needs in different locations and levels of schooling.

These papers represent the reflections of serious observers on the problems facing teacher education today. Their purpose is to continue the discussion of these issues and encourage additional research in the field of teacher education.

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TOWARD A NEW MODEL OF TEACHER EDUCATION

Henry J. Hermanowicz
The Pennsylvania State University

The recent history of teacher education in the United States has been characterized by rather cyclical public criticisms as well as assaults from within academe (Newsweek, 1984). We seem to accept and expect such circumstances as we wait for each new attack hoping that it won't be too devastating. Those of us directly involved in the enterprise--whether as classroom teachers, collegiate instructors, institutional or state department bureaucrats--often contribute to our own malaise. We are frequently critical of each other without offering analytical insights or constructive remedies for the complaints. We often tolerate wholesale criticisms of our schools and teachers, most of which have little foundation. And, at the university level we are self-conscious about the peculiar characteristics of education as an applied, professional field of study rather than being intrigued with its potential to improve instruction and schooling in society. Instead of recognizing and cultivating the uniqueness of our field, we unwisely try to develop respectability by attempting to emulate conventional disciplines while simultaneously distancing ourselves from the pressing needs of education and teacher preparation (Judge, 1982).

I don't want to be misunderstood as suggesting that we should avoid self criticism or that we will ever be without public criticism. Some of it is very necessary and healthy for advancing the state of the art. I believe, however, that our criticisms of each other and the field should be constructive rather than blame-searching or masochistic. It is with such intention that this paper is offered and with hope that those of us in education can take a more proactive position in improving the preparation of teachers rather than reacting defensively to our critics. I am convinced that we have a rich background of experimentation, research, and substantive ideas in the field of pedagogy and

teacher education for reconceptualizing teacher preparation programs. I am also convinced that we must take such initiative for our own professional interest as well as the public interest rather than having legislative or policy mandates imposed upon us. With such concerns in mind, let us turn to some of the developments in teacher education during the past two or three decades which should serve as a prelude for redesigning teacher education today.

The Roaring Sixties

The late '50s and the 1960s were exciting years for education in general and certainly for teacher education. If ever we had a golden age for higher education, it probably was in the 1960s during that period of tremendous growth, generous state and federal support, and almost insatiable demand for its programs, research, and services. Although formal education was being criticized in the United States following the launching of the Russian sputnik in 1957, it was elevated to high national priority and given unparalleled resource support. Buttressed by the Brunerian rationale, we had the whole national curriculum reform movement that read like a resurrection of the New Deal with its acronyms of PSSC, SMSG, BSCS, CBA, and the like. Teacher education in this national picture received paradoxical attention. On one hand it was viewed as central to any reform of "schooling" and, along with major national studies, federally funded retraining institutes emerged across the country. On the other hand, many curriculum packages were designed with so-called "teacher proof" materials in order to bypass or minimize possible contamination of such programs by teachers. This was a dreadful mistake that we must avoid in future efforts to improve the schools. Nevertheless, the significant national controversies and developments promised exciting changes in teacher education. The following were a few of those developments.

The National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards came out in 1961 with a report authored by Margaret Lindsey entitled "New Horizons for the Teaching Profession." It was a far-ranged plan for the self-correction and self-direction of the teaching profession through enforcement of national accreditation and state certification regulations which were in turn to be derived from a comprehensive definition of teacher competence (Lindsey, 1961). In contrast, James Bryant Conant urged freedom of experimentation in teacher education with minimal requirements for satisfying accreditation or certification regulations in the 1963 Carnegie Commission Report, The Education of American Teachers (Conant, 1963). The same year we had the caustic publication entitled The Mis-Education of American Teachers in which James Koerner claimed that the principal problem of teacher education was a totally inadequate corpus of knowledge (Koerner, 1963). This allegation has come to haunt us and must be addressed in any effort to upgrade the education of teachers.

In the meantime, a number of researchers had rediscovered the significance of inquiry into what some people had heretofore characterized as the second most private act in society--teaching. The importance of research dealing with the phenomenon of teaching itself was clearly established and the prodigious first handbook of research on teaching was published in 1963. Much of the new research into teaching involved the direct analysis of teaching behavior as a means of understanding and explaining the phenomenon rather than attempting to derive what teaching is or ought to be from learning theory or from philosophical premises (Smith, 1971). Accompanying this development was the effort to conceive teaching behavior as an identifiable complex of skills that could be cultivated systematically under specifiable conditions. A technology was developed for both research and training involving the observation and

analysis of particular skills along with the employment of feedback for modifying and improving the development of such skills. The technology itself was popularized under the term "micro-teaching."

Policy and legislative developments also came to the fore in the mode of a domestic peace corps to improve education among the disadvantaged, and the Teacher Corps was created as part of the Higher Education Act of 1965. After considerable controversy, Teacher Corps legislation was de-nationalized to emphasize considerable local control. Until the Reagan Administration, Teacher Corps served as the most enduring form of federal support for experimentation in teacher education. The major goals of Teacher Corps still remain timely and significant: (1) to improve the quality of education in areas of concentrated low-income families, (2) to encourage colleges and universities to improve and broaden their programs of teacher education by institutionalizing successful results of experimentation, and (3) to facilitate cooperation between universities, local education agencies, and community citizens for improvement of schooling and teacher training (National Advisory Council on Education Professions Development, 1975).

In 1967, the Education Professions Development Act was passed and shortly thereafter a new Bureau of Educational Personnel Development within the Office of Education was created to administer the Act. Teacher Corps was merged into the Bureau but later separated. The two central themes basic to the strategy of EPDA also reflected Teacher Corps goals:

(1) To cultivate a partnership among colleges, schools, and communities in planning, conducting, and evaluating programs for teacher preparation. This came to be known as the notion of "parity" and one of its implications was that colleges and universities share their responsibility for teacher preparation programs.

(2) To utilize teacher preparation programs as deliberate mechanisms for facilitating school reform and the delivery of more effective instructional services to children particularly those who were poor, of ethnic minorities, or handicapped. This emphasis would focus upon greater field-based training along with effort to improve schooling on-site rather than from the arm chairs or ivy-covered halls of academe (Davies, 1974).

The largest and most visible of the EPDA programs was the TTT program in which $49 million was invested from 1968 to 1973 in approximately 70-75 projects across the country. The three letters in TTT were generally understood to mean Training of Trainers of Teachers. The general goals of this program in addition to parity and on-site school improvement included recruiting and training college and university personnel as change agents in teacher education, reforming teacher preparation within college and university settings, developing so-called "multiplier effects" on teacher education and school reform, and institutionalizing improvements resulting from such reform projects (Provus, 1975).

The Office of Education also initiated a dramatic national effort aimed at synthesizing promising ideas into model teacher education programs, and ten such projects were funded. Unfortunately, The Comprehensive Elementary Teacher Education Models Project did not receive funding for actual implementation of the programs. However, the proposals generated considerable interest and ideas related to the systematic development of teaching competence integral to program design (Clark, 1971).

In 1969 as culmination of the NDEA National Institute for Advanced Study in Teaching Disadvantaged Youth, the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education published Teachers for the Real World, largely authored by B. Othanel Smith. This represented a major attempt to reconceptualize teacher education, offering a number of propositions for its improvement (Smith, et al.,

1969). Among these were the following: (1) the situational teaching of theoretical and interpretive knowledge through the use of protocol materials, (2) the necessity of studying a teaching field in depth along with knowledge about such knowledge (i.e., metaknowledge) as an essential part of teacher education, (3) the identification of minimal, generic abilities which programs of teacher education should systematically develop, (4) the proposed establishment of field-based training complexes or teacher centers, and (5) the restructuring of student teaching from an apprenticeship model and supplementing it with an additional internship as an integral part of the preparation of beginning teachers.

These general developments combined with the establishment of national R&D Centers for the study of teaching or teacher education made the late '60s appear to be an exciting preface for the massive substantive renovation of teacher education in the United States. This, of course, did not occur. Nevertheless, research, experimentation, and new program designs were the order of the decade and promising developments did emerge, including competency based teacher education (CBTE). Individualization of instruction and civil rights for the handicapped also were to impact upon the future of teacher education.

The Competency Based and 94-142 Seventies

In addition to continued research into teaching such as the six-year Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study, (Denham & Lieberman, 1980), the national scene in teacher education during the '70s was dominated by CBTE and Public Law 94-142, The Education of All Handicapped Children Act. Never without controversy, the CBTE movement created quite a stir and seemed to have considerable promise for improving teacher education. Although CBTE could not be regarded as a completely unified or monolithic movement, CBTE programs

were supposed to demonstrate the following characteristics: Objectives for teacher education programs were to be drawn from analyses of teacher roles-functions and clearly specified with expected minimal levels of mastery. Such objectives, and their criteria for assessment, were to be made public as anticipated program outcomes. Content was to be selected and instructional strategies designed to result in such outcomes. Assessment of the objectives was to be based largely upon teacher candidate performance whereby the rate of individual progress through the program was to be determined by demonstrated competency rather than by time or course completion. Finally, such assessment of performance was to be used cybernetically as corrective feedback to parts of and the overall program.

Elements of CBTE have been incorporated in many programs, but what seemed to be a major movement for improving teacher education is now receiving little or no serious attention. It is not my intent to provide the pros and cons of the CBTE movement, which I have done elsewhere. CBTE never did realize its full potential, but the movement did stimulate further attention to a variety of issues and needs in the preparation of teachers. While not producing conclusive evidence of program efficacy, research and evaluation of CBTE has helped refine our knowledge about teacher education and pedagogy. (Gage & Winne, 1975; National Institute of Education, 1974).

Another major development that took some time to hit us was Public Law 94-142 which was enacted in 1975. P.L. 94-142 has been called a "bill of rights for the handicapped." It required providing a first-rate education for handicapped youngsters including placing such youngsters in regular classrooms whenever it is in their best interest. Providing free public education to all handicapped children starting at age three was another major stipulation of the Act. P.L. 94-142 also required that each handicapped child would have an "individualized education program" which is jointly developed by the child's

teacher and parents and the child if possible. Such a program was to include an assessment of a child's present achievement level, specification of goals, description of strategies planned to meet the goals, and the means for checking the educational progress toward the goals. Supportive programs for preparing education personnel, including inservice education, were to be undertaken by the various states. The Act had implications far beyond accommodating the educational needs of the handicapped. Properly implemented, provisions of P.L. 94-142 were intended to alter much of the conventional practice we find in schooling, teacher education, inservice education, and the preparation of teacher educators. (Goodman, 1976; Boston, 1977). Indeed, the basic components of the Act gave rise to a formal proposal for a national overhauling of teacher education. (American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1980).

The Reforming Eighties

For a variety of reasons, certainly economic and political as well as educational, we have experienced during the first half of the '80s an incredible array of national studies and commission reports dealing with the necessity of improving the quality of formal education in the United States. There have been over thirty such national studies and close to 200 state commissions offering recommendations for school improvement. Among the reports that have gained considerable prominence as a result of media exposure were the following:

The National Commission on Excellence in Education Report entitled A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform. Two reports from the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching--the first one entitled The Condition of Teaching and the second simply called High School: A Report on Secondary Education in America. There is also the much publicized report of John I. Goodlad and his associates published in book length form entitled A Place Called School: Prospects for the Future. Other reports included the special

committee of the Education Commission of the States dealing with Education and Economic Growth, The Twentieth Century Fund Report, and the National Science Board's Commission on Pre-College Education in Mathematics, Science, and Technology. We also had the College Board report entitled Academic Preparation for College: What Students Need To Know and Be Able To Do. And, there was Ted Sizer's provocative book, Horace's Compromise: The Dilemma of the American High School.

Within the economic framework of feeling that we are losing our competitive edge with other industrial nations, particularly Japan, the geneses of many of the reports are the general concerns about lowered measured average achievement of students, with previous declines in SAT scores, with poor comparisons of U. S. student achievement matched against students in other industrial nations, and with secondary school curricula that allegedly "have become homogenized, diluted and diffused without central purpose." (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983). Criticisms have focused on the schools failing to cultivate academic literacy and higher cognitive abilities of our students. The curricula of our schools along with erosion of academic standards and a loss of clarity of purpose have been attacked in the reports.

Such concerns have generated a number of recommendations to reform our schools. The National Commission on Excellence offered recommendations dealing with content, standards, time, teaching, and leadership-fiscal support. The Commission's content recommendations called for strengthening state and high school graduation requirements with minimums for all students in the so-called five new basics which would include: (1) four years of English; (2) three years of mathematics; (3) three years of science; (4) three years of social studies; and (5) one-half year of computer science with college-bound students also taking two years of foreign language. The recommendations also included

adopting more rigorous and measurable standards and higher expectations for academic performance and student conduct in addition to expanding the school day, lengthening the school year, and even providing eleven-month contracts for all teachers (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983, 23-33.)

The Carnegie Foundation study on the American High School also stressed clarifying the education goals of the high schools, emphasizing the centrality of language-writing skills, and having core requirements in the curriculum which would include five units of language, two and one-half units in history, one unit in civics, two units in science, two units in mathematics, and a half unit each in technology, health, a seminar on work, and a senior independent project. Improving the status, salaries, and working conditions of teachers also was a central theme of the study (Boyer, 1983).

Sizer's report urged that students be barred from high school courses until they have mastered basic literacy, arithmetic, and citizenship. The report also recommends limiting high school to students who want to be there and are capable of doing the work while stripping the curriculum to a handful of academic courses for all students--omitting vocational education, physical education, and perhaps foreign language as well. The academic program would be structurally reorganized into four departments: (1) communication and artistic expression; (2) mathematics and science; (3) literature and arts; and (4) philosophy and history (Sizer, 1984).

Without going into the details of such recommendations and the differences that one can find among such reports (and they are huge) a pervasive, significant theme that emerged was the centrality of teachers and quality teaching as fundamental to the success of such recommendations. This, in turn, has generated a great deal of activity and attention on teacher education and the status of the teaching profession. Virtually all of the southern states are

creating plans to upgrade teacher education, the certification of teachers, and the assessment-improvement of teacher performance. Teacher organizations and other professional groups are jumping into the national debate, sometimes narrowly focusing upon single dimensions of the issue such as career ladder or merit pay strategies. However, what is being proposed is nothing less than a substantive transformation of our schools, their curricula, and their relationships with our universities along with concomitant transformation of the preparation, licensure, and status of teaching as a profession.

The issues, I believe, go to the heart of how we can recruit better qualified people into teacher preparation programs, how we can prepare them better in such programs, how we can retain and reward the most competent teachers, and how we can involve the universities in overhauling the quality of our schools as part of a collaborative enterprise. In other words, I see four broad strategies developing to change the quality of education in the United States:

(1) Merit-based scholarship-fellowship programs along with loans having forgiveness features in order to attract academically brighter individuals into teacher preparation programs.

(2) Efforts to overhaul and strengthen teacher education with concomitant efforts to raise certification standards and mandate state testing programs as a prerequisite to certification.

(3) Experimenting with career ladder and merit pay efforts.

(4) Encouraging greater university/school collaboration to improve the quality of our schools.

Some of the reformers are convinced that the best way to overhaul teacher preparation is to minimize the professional or education requirements for prospective teachers. We are again seeing advocacy of internship programs following strictly liberal arts plus academic specialization as the proposed route to receiving and preparing better teachers. Or the old MAT programs are being "dusted off" as the best national approach to revamping teacher education. I regard both approaches as short-sighted. I believe that teacher education must be overhauled in view of a growing research and knowledge base. This theme is developed in the remaining portion of the paper.

A New Model of Teacher Education

We must recognize that the programs we design now will be preparing teachers who will carry their responsibilities into the 21st Century. We are obligated to capitalize upon a substantial background of experimentation, research, and substantive ideas in the fields of pedagogy and teacher education to improve the enterprise. I believe this background to be much richer than can be found in many other applied fields of study or professions. This, however, does not mean that it is all significant or useful. As is the case with other applied fields, we have experienced our share of experimentation and research that has been trivial, non-cumulative, or ahistorical. Furthermore, we are far from having a body of pedagogical knowledge that can be characterized as a highly systematic, integrated network of general empirical principles or cause-effect relationships. In a field such as ours with greater kinship to the social-behavioral sciences rather than to the natural sciences, this would be a totally unrealistic expectation anyway. We also should not expect research to provide full-blown explanations regarding the most effective way to prepare teachers anymore than we would expect research to do likewise in preparing physicians, lawyers, farmers, dentists, and the like.

However, we have a useful, growing knowledge-base including the beginnings of process-product relationship findings resulting from research into teaching (Gage, 1977). How best to utilize the overall knowledge and research we have available and with what precautions will always generate controversy in renovating teacher education programs. But, we simply cannot afford to ignore such knowledge by conducting business as usual or waiting until research will provide all of the answers. It never will. Furthermore, we must redesign total teacher education programs rather than have quick-fix solutions such as MAT or internship proposals imposed upon us.

Who will have to do this job? I think that college teacher educators will have to assume the principal responsibility for the overhaul of teacher education, but in collaboration with teachers and the more enlightened state departments of education. They must exercise the initiative in transforming research and knowledge into reconceptualized programs of teacher preparation. I think that one of the best models provided is that offered by B. O. Smith in A Design for a School of Pedagogy. Smith lays the responsibility squarely on the doorstep of teacher educators:

> The failure of research to make as great an impact upon practice as it might have done is not be be attributed so much to a lack of research knowledge as the fact that pedagogical faculties largely ignore research findings as they train school personnel, especially teachers and administrators. When they have made use of research they have done so in courses taught after the fashion of liberal arts courses which are largely verbal, inducing no operational understanding and no ability to perform in accordance with research knowledge (Smith, 1980, 54).
>
> What is now required is an about face for faculties of pedagogy. They are accustomed to thinking in terms of what can be done to improve the schools. And professors of pedagogy have been all too ready to have teachers to do this and so, or administrators to introduce this and that remedy. But the time has come for improvements to begin at home, for faculties of pedagogy to look at their own programs in light of research knowledge and to create a genuine program of professional education. We can no longer afford the luxury of trying to change everything but our own programs (Smith, 1980, 57).

One of the best jobs in the '70s of outlining the general issues and needs facing the future of teacher education in American society was done in the AACTE Bicentennial Commission Report, Educating a Profession. Offering recommendations ranging from the governance of teacher education to career-long preparation and quality control, the report laid out an impressive blueprint for the teaching profession. The blueprint deserved careful, extensive consideration and greater follow-through than it received. Part of the report proposed that the preparation of teachers be recast in a substantially reconceived and combined bachelor's and master's degree sequence with an additional year of supervised employment as an internship. An expanding professional culture of knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessitated an enlarged program. This program proposal included a restructuring of general or liberal studies, requiring certain pre-education studies, specifying more rigorous, integrated professional studies which focus on teacher functions, and requiring a continuum of field experiences related to the professional studies. Because the report dealt with such a broad range of issues, it was unable to deal in sufficient detail with the knowledge base or content of the program design for professional studies (Howsam, et al., 1976).

Several years later in the publication The Case for Extended Programs of Initial Preparation, Denemark and Nutter advanced the argument for redesigning teacher education programs around the growing knowledge base of pedagogy. They recommended a six-year program of initial preparation for teachers to accommodate critical clientele needs and increased expectations in view of a growing, reliable base of knowledge and wisdom that characterizes the field. Recognizing that such a proposal would be controversial, Denemark and Nutter(1980) documented the rationale and general findings supporting this point of view.

Expanding upon the Bicentennial Commission Report and reflecting upon decades of research and our national experience with teacher education, B. Othanel Smith and his associates developed a general model of teacher education utilizing the growing knowledge base in pedagogy. This model, described in considerable detail by Smith in A Design for a School of Pedagogy, is worthy of serious consideration for the qualitative renovation of teacher education. The material which follows borrows freely from this document to describe the model (Smith, et al., 1980; Smith, 1983).

In bold outline, the proposal requires that we reconceptualize and redesign the professional component of teacher education as an autonomous, two-year program of professional post-baccalaureate studies. Prerequisite baccalaureate programs for prospective teachers, however, would additionally involve rather complete revamping of general education requirements emphasizing greater depth and enrichment in content areas for prospective secondary school teachers and comprehensiveness for prospective elementary school teachers. Secondary school teachers would also be obligated to complete two areas of academic concentration as their teaching field preparation. Specified work in selected social-behavioral sciences would be required of both prospective secondary and elementary school teachers as pre-professional study.

The two years of post-baccalaureate study would focus exclusively upon basic preparation in the science and art of pedagogy including pedagogical specialization in content areas. In addition to content pedagogy, areas of required study for all teachers would include exceptionality, pedagogical psychology, measurement and evaluation, curriculum, and the school and community. All such pedagogical study would be accompanied by carefully planned clinical experiences. The entire second year of the two-year program

would involve full-time study and clinical experience in a public school district and community used as a training laboratory.

Perhaps here it would be useful to describe in somewhat more detail the baccalaureate program expected of prospective secondary and elementary school teachers. Concerned with the present superficiality of most general education programs and an elective system that excerbates the problem, Smith has an interesting plan to assure some degree of balance as well as intellectual depth in the required studies for prospective teachers. All prospective secondary school teachers would be required to complete study in two fields of concentration such as, for example, history and economics, each requiring 30 semester hours of work. To complement such concentrated study, the general education requirements of prospective secondary school teachers would involve two 15-hour sequences of study in areas of knowledge outside of their fields of concentration as a means of balancing or complementing their overall baccalaureate program. Added to these 90 semester hours of study, prospective secondary school teachers would have to complete at least nine semester hours of psychology including learning and motivation, human development, and intelligence and its measurement, along with nine hours in community sociology, anthropology, and human ecology. Such 18 or more semester hours of required study would serve as the prospective teachers' pre-professional or pre-pedagogical curriculum. Electives would be minimal or non-existent.

Prospective elementary school teachers would also be required to complete the same 18 semester hour pre-professional curriculum. However, in contrast to the secondary teachers' general education, their general education requirements would be more comprehensive in scope, corresponding more closely with the range of content fields that they would be obligated to teach later in their careers. Such general education and content area requirements would be in three areas as follows on Table 1.

TABLE I. ELEMENTARY TEACHERS' GENERAL EDUCATION AND CONTENT PREPARATION

(102 SEMESTER HOURS)

		Semester Hours
AREA 1	ARTS AND SYMBOLICS OF INFORMATION	(48)
	2 courses in Art and Music	6
	Sequence in literature including children's literature	12
	Sequence in English and linguistics	15
	Sequence in Mathematics	15
AREA 2	PHYSICAL, BIOLOGICAL, PSYCHOLOGICAL, AND SOCIAL SCIENCE	(33)
	Sequence in Physical Sciences including Physics and Chemistry	21
	Sequence in the Biological Sciences	12
AREA 3	HISTORICAL, SUSTAINING, REGULATORY, AND DISSEMINATIVE SCIENCES	(21)
	Sequence in History including World and American History	15
	Sequence in Economics and Political Science	6

ELEMENTARY TEACHERS' PREPROFESSIONAL STUDY

(18 SEMESTER HOURS)

Same As Required for Secondary Teachers

The foregoing requirements are designed to provide the prospective elementary school teachers with some degree of comprehensiveness in their general education as well as some depth in content areas along with study in pre-pedagogical social behavioral sciences.

But both elementary and secondary school teachers would be prepared with strong backgrounds in their content fields of instruction as well as with depth in general studies. In addition, both would have completed a set of required pre-professional studies. As indicated previously, upon completion of such baccalureate programs, the prospective teachers would then pursue a two-year professional program of pedagogical study involving extensive clinical experiences. Students would be expected to master clinical pedagogical knowledge and basic skills of planning, diagnosing, feedback, reinforcement, management of instruction and learning, evaluation, and communicating with students, peers, and parents. The first and second semesters of study for teacher candidates would be broken down as follows on Table 2.

To illustrate one of the four courses required in the first semester, a verbatim description from the Smith proposal follows:

> Measurement and evaluation should be focused on the knowledge and skills a teacher can use in the classroom and to some extent on the organization and interpretation of data bearing on problem cases and on the programs and policies of the school. This means, among other things, that a good part of the work should deal with diagnosis and feedback. The prospective teacher must learn to use test materials in order to uncover learning difficulties and to relate feedback to them bearing in mind that evaluation should be primarily for the purpose of helping children to learn and only secondarily to ascertain the levels of their achievement.
>
> The formal course in measurement and evaluation should be accompanied by laboratory experiences in which the trainee would study, under supervision, different types of tests, their purposes and their validity and reliability. Furthermore, the laboratory should provide practices in the development of tests, giving tests, and in organizing and interpreting the data therefrom.

TABLE 2. FIRST SEMESTER OF PROFESSIONAL STUDY

Courses	Semester Hours	Clock Hours Per Week
Exceptionality	2	2
Clinical Observation and Experience	2	6
Pedagogical Psychology	2	2
Clinical Observation and Experience	2	6
Measurement and Evaluation	2	2
Evaluation Laboratory	2	6
School and Community	2	2
Field Laboratory	2	6

The second semester of basic work would involve the following requirements on Table 3.

TABLE 3. SECOND SEMESTER OF PROFESSIONAL STUDY

Required for All Prospective Teachers

Courses	Semester Hours
Curriculum and Instruction	2
Curriculum-Laboratory (including initial teaching experience)	3 (but 9 clock hours)

Concurrent Specialized Courses for Early Childhood Through Middle School Teachers

Courses	Semester Hours
Pedagogy of Arts and Literature	2
Pedagogy of Language Arts	2
Pedagogy of Mathematics	2
Pedagogy of Reading	2
Pedagogy of Science	2
Pedagogy of Social Sciences	2
	Total 17

Concurrent Specialized Courses for Junior and Senior High Teachers

Courses	Semester Hours
Pedagogy of Major Subject	2
Pedagogy of Minor Subject	2
Pedagogy of Secondary Reading	2
Electives	6
	Total 17

Again, to give some flavor of the emphasis within a particular course, the following verbatim description is offered:

> When we speak of the curriculum we do not refer to theories of curriculum development but rather to the actual curriculum of the school. It should be analyzed in the light of certain concepts and principles. For example, the existing curriculum entails two kinds of sequencing: Program and Instructional.
>
> Program sequencing is the order in which the major components of the curriculum occur from year to year. By Instructional sequence is meant the ordering of the items of content conducive to day-to-day learning.
>
> The concepts and principles on which program sequencing is based should be thoroughly explored, and the sequencing of instruction should be examined in relation to the content to be taught. Instructional sequencing in arithmetic, for example, is not the same as sequencing in literature or history, a difference attributable to disparities in the language and logic of the disciplines.
>
> Another theme to be explored is content selection. By what criteria was the subject matter of the curriculum selected? These criteria should be expressly formulated and examined by reference to what is known about child and adolescent development, learning, and the utility of knowledge. Likewise the principles of content organization should be examined with care, not merely an abstraction but in reference to the structure of courses of study, textbooks, workbooks, and other materials of instruction.
>
> As a rule, future high school and elementary school teachers have been separated in their study of the curriculum. We suggest that this practice be abandoned. One of the persistent problems of schooling has been that of articulating not only the different grade levels but also the different segments of the school--primary, intermediate, junior high school, senior high school, and college. These problems can be obviated, at least partly, if the elementary and high school teachers are familiar with the entire curriculum from early childhood through the high school. For this reason we strongly urge that the course and curriculum be required alike of all prospective teachers regardless of what they will teach.

The second year, or third and fourth semesters of the proposed program, would involve full-time work in a public school district and community used as a training laboratory. All trainees would be expected to become thoroughly informed about the rules and regulations of the school, the various functions of school personnel, and their own duties and responsibilities as trainees in the system. All of the teacher candidates would be expected to be given increasing

teaching responsibilities under close supervision, but in more than one school and with more than one clinical teacher. All trainees would also be expected to have supervised experience in working with parents and committees of teachers working on programs or other tasks for which they are responsible. A clinical seminar conducted by a university instructor and one or more clinical teachers would be required operating concurrently with the trainees' teaching experiences. Such seminars would focus upon helping the trainee improve his or her skill, knowledge, and performance by diagnosing videotape feedback of the trainee's teaching and providing additional assistance where necesary through the use of protocols, micro-teaching, or other clinical experiences.

The foregoing provides a rather broad sketch of the overall program proposed as a new model for preparing teachers. We must reject the notion that our knowledge base is too imprecise, incomplete, or imperfect to be used in restructuring teacher education. And if we argue that it is, then it is also legitimate to question the present substantive base for preparing teachers as well as the implied assumption that doing little or nothing at least won't hurt the preparation of teachers. Such a posture is understandable but certainly not acceptable with respect to the critical needs of our children, the schools, and the teaching profession. Of course, a counter argument may be that we should support a variety of models for preparing teachers. I think that the general model offered should represent the basic framework for reforming teacher eduction within which some variations may be necessary. However, it seems to be time for establishing a basic model as the standard for advancing the national status of teacher education.

Such a new model of teacher education will generate considerable controversy and Smith argues that its success will depend upon the realization of certain changes for colleges of education in both external and internal conditions including the following:

External Changes

(a) State support of pedagogical schools based on program and professional needs rather than the number of full-time students.

(b) State recognition and financial support of the public schools as training laboratories.

(c) An accreditation system that makes a clinical program at the post-baccalaureate level a necessary condition.

(d) A state-wide system of rigorous examinations of clinical and academic pedagogical knowledge and on the subject matter of instruction.

Internal Changes

(a) Command of clinical knowledge and skills by education faculties and the ability to train prospective teachers in such knowledge and skills.

(b) Improved relationships with the public schools and their faculties.

(c) Changes in beliefs about pedagogical education.

To this list probably should be added the following: A renewed sense of commitment and dedication to uncompromised quality in the preparation of teachers; and a vigorous, functional atmosphere of cooperation and collaboration between the colleges, teachers, the schools, and the state departments of education in the best interest of the profession and the public.

Developing such a new model of teacher education sounds terribly difficult, ambitious, and possibly overwhelming, but I wonder if we can afford to settle for anything less. And if we do, I suspect that the entire matter will be taken out of the hands of teacher educators and the future of teacher education as well as the nation's schools of education will be determined by others.

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RECENT RESEARCH ON THE BELIEFS OF TEACHERS AND ITS IMPORTANCE FOR TEACHER EDUCATION

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Teachers in American public schools frequently describe their teaching situation in such a way that one is left wondering whether or not teachers have any control over what takes place within the four walls of the classroom. One hears frequent discussions of administrative mandates, endless paperwork, teacher-proof curricula and severe discipline problems which shape the educational environment. Such a press is indeed severe, and if teachers hope to take hold of the situation, they will have to do it by acting on the things that they believe. It is through their vision of what they believe should be taking place in American schools that teachers can work to shape classroom events.

In recent years, there has been a growing interest in studying the beliefs held by teachers and the relationship between those beliefs and the teacher's action. The assumption behind much of this research is that beliefs are an important determiner of behavior and if we want to improve teaching practice, we need to go to the root of practice, beliefs. Knowledge about the relationship between teacher beliefs and practice could be used for the improvement of instruction through inservice or preservice teacher education. In this paper, I intend to select from a larger review of recent literature on teacher beliefs in order to answer the following questions:

1) What do we know about the nature of teacher beliefs and the relationship between what teachers believe and what teachers practice?
2) What should be included in a teacher education program based on the knowledge gained from such research?

Some studies suggest that many teachers do not base their actions upon any philosophical system. Miller (1981) developed a questionnaire on teacher belief

systems which he administered to 520 prospective and practicing teachers registered at the University of Alberta. The questionnaire was designed to get at two dimensions of teacher beliefs: 1) A teacher-centered as against a child-centered dimension, and 2) a tough-minded (knowledge comes from scientific inquiry), compared with a tender-minded (knowledge comes from personal subjectivity including intuition and emotion), dimension. Teachers whose beliefs clustered in one end of both dimensions were said to have a theoretical affiliation. Those with a an educational orientation were teachers who held beliefs related to both the role of the teacher (teacher-centered v. child-centered) and the nature of knowledge (tough-minded v. tender-minded). These teachers held beliefs about either the role of the teacher or the nature of knowledge, but not both. Fifty-eight percent of the teachers had neither an educational orientation nor a theoretical affiliation, while 32% had only an orientation and 9.8% had a theoretical framework. Of those teachers with an orientation, only 8.7% thought along the dimension of tough to tender-minded, suggesting a lack of teacher concern for epistemological issues. Ideologically, teachers tended toward a teacher centered (18.4%) and a tender-minded (7%) orientation. These data on the specific philosophy seem less significant than the data concerning presence or absence of theoretical affiliation and educational orientation. The large percentage of preservice and inservice teachers with neither an orientation nor a philosophic foundation supports the conclusion that many teachers do not possess a philosophical system upon which to base their actions. They do not think broadly or abstractly about their teaching.

In a qualitative study, Buchman (1983) identified two types of teachers: those who operated from educational principles and those who were too submerged in their teaching situation to operate from principles. Analyzing coded responses to an unstructured interview, Buchman categorized teachers in the following ways:

1) Self-oriented: These teachers talked about their teaching in terms of actions, and justified their actions through tradition or with comments such as "That's the way I

do things." These teachers seemed too emotionally involved to distance themselves from the concrete action taking place in the classroom. 2) Role-oriented: These teachers talked about teaching principles and justified their actions by these principles. They were able to distance themselves from the action of the classroom and view the classroom in a more holistic manner.

In this study 11 teachers were identified as role-oriented and 9 were identified as self-oriented. This qualitative study triangulates with Miller's quantitative study. The two studies suggest that many teachers do not possess a philosophical system because their manner of dealing with the teaching world is too focused on the concrete. They focus on the concrete because they are submerged in the concrete. Other teachers are able to distance themselves from the concrete and reflect on their teaching situation, and so they are able to employ teaching principles in their classrooms.

Some research supports the conclusion that teacher belief systems impact on instruction. Bauch (1982) reported that "educational beliefs do influence teaching practices thereby contributing to the context in which learning occurs" (p. 16). Working with a sample of 182 teachers from Goodlad's Study of Schooling, Bauch explored elementary school teachers' beliefs through a paper and pencil inventory based on the work of Kerlinger. She approached teacher practice through questionnaires, interviews and direct observation of instruction. Basing her judgments on the belief dimensions of teacher discipline and control and student participation, Bauch labelled teachers as autocrats (scoring high on teacher control, but low on student participation); strategists (high on both); laissez-faire (low on both); or democrats (low on teacher control and high on student participation). Bauch found teaching behaviors which discriminated teachers with one philosophical system from teachers with another philosophical system. For instance, those labelled as autocrats tended to employ lecturing, writing and test-taking as their

primary methodology. In contrast, democrats tended to promote student self-direction through such activities as class discussions, dramatizations, projects and experiments.

If, in fact, beliefs shape practice, is it appropriate to infer that those who operate from a belief system manifest better practice than those who do not operate from a belief system? One study suggests that this is a proper inference. Several studies have supported the contention that teacher beliefs can interact negatively with curricular innovations. Bussis, et al. (1976) used an interview strategy to evaluate the effectiveness of teaching centers in helping 60 elementary school teachers implement an open classroom approach. One discovery the researchers made was that a substantial percentage of the teachers held philosophies inconsistent with the open classroom approach and dealt with the conflict by behaving in their traditional manner or by behaving in a manner somewhat consistent with the open approach while experiencing a great deal of anxiety. For instance, this second group of teachers encouraged group interaction in their classrooms but experienced a fear of management problems. Thirty-three percent of the teachers had beliefs about curriculum which contradicted the open education approach and 50% had beliefs about children which contradicted open educational philosophies. The researchers concluded that teachers need to have a philosophical commitment to an innovative program in order for it to work.

In a similar study, Olson (1981) used an interviewing technique based on the work of George Kelly to explore eight science teachers' implementation of an innovative science curriculum (Schools Council Integrated Science Project). The curriculum, based on the inquiry approach, emphasized the process of instruction as opposed to content, free ranging discussion periods, and a low influence teaching style which encouraged the students to discover knowledge on their own. Olson found that teachers did not have a language for explaining the innovations in this

program and as a result, translated the program into their own frame of reference. For instance, open-ended discussion questions were used by one teacher as an opportunity to deliver information and by another as end of chapter, content-oriented questions which probed the students' knowledge of material. Discussion periods were viewed by one teacher as a time for students to talk freely without any teacher guidance, thus downplaying the importance of the discussion, and by another as "pure waffle". Teachers were unable to shift to a discovery mode and continued to view their role as information-givers. The beliefs of these teachers served to shipwreck the innovations inherent in the program.

Harvey, et al. (1968) carried out a study which supports the contention that teachers operating at a more abstract level (role-oriented) manifest a different style and generate a different classroom atmosphere and a different set of student behaviors from teachers operating at a more concrete level. This research was based upon the conceptual levels construct pioneered by Harvey, et al. (1961). In the Harvey, et al. (1968) study of preschool teachers, the more abstract teachers "expressed greater warmth toward the children, showed greater perceptiveness of the children's wishes and needs, were more flexible in meeting the interests and needs of the children...were more encouraging of creativity,...manifested less need for structure,..." (pp. 151-152). Students of teachers who functioned at a more abstract level "were significantly more involved in classroom activities, more active, higher in achievement and less concrete in their responses" than students of teachers at a more concrete level (p. 160). This study suggests that teachers operating from more theoretical orientation have a more exciting classroom with more involved students, and therefore a better classroom atmosphere, than those teachers operating at a more concrete level.

These studies further illustrate the view that beliefs do indeed influence practice. The research cited thus far suggests two points: 1) Many teachers

operate without a clearly conceived teaching philosophy. The research by Bauch (1982) also supports this contention, in that 36% of the people completing the beliefs questionnaire did not have a sufficiently pronounced belief system to be included in the study. 2) Teacher beliefs do impact on instruction and can do so in a positive way. Point two leads to the conclusion that some teachers do operate from a coherent set of beliefs. An implication of point one is that something else shapes many teachers' classroom behavior besides beliefs. But, one must ask, do these teachers consciously choose to reject theory and look to or allow something else to shape their teaching behavior? Gerald Duffy (1981) explored this question as part of his research on reading and elementary school teachers. Using a naturalistic study of 23 teachers, he concluded that teachers do have broad beliefs related to reading that help to shape practice, but other factors often play a more dominant role (Bawden, et al., 1979). In a review of literature concerning the relationship between theories about reading and elementary teacher reading practice, Duffy (1981) concluded that the three factors most greatly influencing practice were the nature of the students (i.e., income level, grade level and ability level), the commercial reading material used in the school and the desire or need to maintain a smooth activity flow. Observational studies cited suggest that the theories implicit in basal readers are major factors in shaping observable teaching practice related to reading instruction. The theory inherent in the text replaces the teacher's theories about reading instruction. Duffy adds to this list: demands of peer pressure, pressure from the principal and applicable accountability mandates. Once all of this is taken into account, then the teacher's personal theory of reading becomes a consideration.

Duffy paints a picture of a teacher stepping out of college and into the classroom with a set of beliefs about reading. This novice teacher soon becomes overwhelmed by the situation itself and theories must take a backseat to merely surviving in the classroom. Some of the research previously discussed (Bauch, 1982;

Buchman, 1983; Miller, 1981) suggests that many teachers come away from their teaching experience atheoretical. Duffy's review strongly supports the conclusion that situational factors provide an explanation for this occurrence.

Clark and Yinger (1980) have argued that the true mark of a professional is design or "the process of devising courses of action aimed at changing existing situations into preferred ones" (p. 14). If teachers are to be designers of instruction, they must have a sense of the "preferred change". This needs to flow out of a belief system. This notion that a professional's behavior is shaped by his belief structure is congruent with Buchman's (1983) role-oriented teacher. The other side of this coin is the teacher so involved in the situation that theory can play little or no role in his teaching. This is a description of Buchman's self-oriented teacher. Because it is important to help teachers develop a theoretical affiliation and operationalize their affiliation in the classroom, teacher education needs to change.

Schools of education need to help future teachers develop a personal educational philosophy and a repertoire of techniques which they can employ in the classroom. Preservice teachers must come to see the relationship between these techniques and ideas. Field experience should provide opportunities for preservice teachers to choose techniques based on their beliefs and to try them out. A preservice teacher needs to emerge from student teaching with an intact set of beliefs. Student teaching should be a time when beliefs grow from experience, as opposed to being destroyed by experience. All of this, of course, is easy to say and hard to do.

The development of a personal educational philosophy must be an important part of the teacher education program from the beginning. As the work of Miller (1981) suggests, there are two crucial dimensions of educational philosophy: the teacher-centered as opposed to the student-centered dimension and the tender-minded as opposed to the tough-minded knowledge dimension. To explore the first,

preservice teachers need to explore philosophy as it relates to the nature of man, the development of the child from birth through adolescence, and general theories of learning. To get at the second issue, students need to study epistemology. Further, preservice teachers need to study educational issues such as reading and classroom management as they relate to the beliefs options inherent in these concerns. And studying teaching methodology in general must always be done in light of theory. For instance, students being taught lecturing techniques or group discussion techniques must also be taught how these fit into philosophical systems.

Every student must consciously develop a personal educational philosophy. To explore broader belief structures, preservice teachers can be interviewed using the Kelly repertory grid techniques (Kelly, 1955). This technique was developed by the psychologist George Kelly to help individuals explore and articulate their belief structures. Devices such as the Beliefs on Discipline Inventory (Glickman and Tomashiro, 1980) and the Conceptual Framework of Reading Interview (Gove, 1983) can help students clarify their views on specific issues. These devices can be used as springboards for classroom discussions. Students should be evolving personal philosophical statements through journal keeping and the writing of espoused platforms. The writing of an espoused platform should begin during the first year of instruction. It should be presented to teachers and peers, discussed, critiqued and continuously revised throughout the entire program.

For preservice teachers to learn how to translate theory into practice, they must learn how to plan. Planning is one way to lift the teacher out of the self-oriented, submerged behavior which does not permit him to see that he has control over his teaching destiny. Planning is an act of free will (Clark and Yinger, 1979). Planning permits the teacher a psychological distance from the classroom which further permits a conscious shaping of the events taking place there. The teacher can consider all the factors which Duffy suggests weigh heavily on the teacher, while permitting him to plan events based on what he most deeply believes.

Finally, once the preservice teacher has developed his teaching philosophy, he must learn how to employ this philosophy in actual practice. This must occur during the field experience, since the field presents situations which could cause a teacher to give up his philosophy as a survival strategy. Clinical supervision is a conceptual scheme in which the clinical supervisor helps the teacher to shape and thereby improve his own instruction (Cogan, 1973; Goldhammer, et al., 1980).

The clinical supervision cycle begins with a preobservation conference, a meeting between the teacher and supervisor. During this meeting, the supervisor prompts the teacher to articulate his espoused platform or his underlying beliefs. They discuss the goals for a specific lesson to be observed as well as any areas of concern related to teaching that need to be focused on when the supervisor observes the lesson. The teacher and supervisor agree upon data related to the concern which the supervisor will collect when he observes the lesson. The observation then takes place and the lesson is discussed during a postobservation conference. Using the data collected during the lesson, the supervisor and the teacher discuss weaknesses in the teacher's approach and work to improve the instruction which has been delivered. The cycle of clinical supervision then begins again as the problems and new strategies discussed in the first cycle become the focus for the second. This technique can be used with preservice teachers at all stages of field experience to help them explore what they believe in relation to what they practice. Through feedback provided by the supervisor, they can come to see the incongruity between their beliefs and their practice. To gain congruence they could either change their practice or reflect with the supervisor on the adequacy of their belief system. The personal philosophy must continue to evolve as a result of experience in the field, not be wiped out by it. Clinical supervision can be an invaluable aid in this process.

The literature cited in this paper argues for the need to make the development and implementation of the teacher's philosophy a conscious part of teacher

education. Many current teacher education programs are oriented toward teaching techniques and competencies. The suggestions made in this paper are additions to such programs which would help preservice teachers to anchor these techniques in personal belief systems. Though the program proposed here would place additional time demands on the preservice teacher and the education faculty, it is necessary if we hope to help teachers to be the shapers of their educational environment. If teachers do not possess and actualize a system of beliefs, a vision of what should be, then they themselves are doomed to be that which the environment shapes.

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THE DIALOGUE OF DEMOCRACY: ITS FORM, CONTENT, AND IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHER EDUCATION

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From many quarters, public schools in this country are under attack. On one hand, the New Right and Moral Majority accuse educators of the evils of secular humanism and contend that the return of school prayer would signal the reemergence of basic Christian values which they believe have been eroded by confused liberals. On the other, the schools are labeled anachronisms which hold back the wave of technological change that would revolutionize our educational system. Rare is the voice which suggests a rational course of deliberation which would enable us to rise above the din of special-interest demands and plot a reasonable course.

Such a voice was heard four years ago, however, with the publication of Freeman Butts' The Revival of Civic Learning: A Rationale for Citizenship Education in American Schools (1980). In Butts' opinion, what is needed to enable American public schools to meet the challenges of our increasingly divided society is an ongoing public dialogue to focus our attention on the problems and possibilities of our democracy as we enter its third century. He forcefully avers that we have recently overlooked the cohesive values which have served our country well for the past 200 years. To this end, he offers a Decalogue of Democratic Civic Values to provide substance to the dialogue.

Butts' Decalogue consists of five uniting values which he terms the True Forms of Unum: Justice, Equality, Authority, Participation, and Personal Obligation for the Public Good, as well as the True Forms of Pluribus which ensure the individualism highly regarded in this country and include Freedom, Diversity, Privacy, Due Process, and International Human Rights (p. 128).

A DECALOGUE OF DEMOCRATIC CIVIC VALUES FOR AMERICAN SCHOOLS

Corrupted Forms	True Forms of Unum	True Forms of Pluribus	Corrupted Forms
"'Law & Order'"	Justice	Freedom	Anarchy
Enforced Sameness	Equality	Diversity	Unstable pluralism
Authoritarianism	Authority	Privacy	Privatism
"'Majoritarianism'"	Participation	Due Process	"Soft on criminals"
Chauvinism	Personal Obligation for the Public Good	International Human Rights	"Cultural imperialism"

Butts argues that the above values have recently become corrupted in practice through our neglect of their central importance in defining American democracy and inattention to the need for ongoing public discourse. Without such careful and committed attention, we will at best continue to talk around and about democracy, rarely focussing on what it is that maintains our stability in a time of certain and rapid change. He believes that the chief purpose of universal education "is not solely nor primarily to serve the self-fulfillment of individuals, or to develop the mind for its own sake, or to get a job, or to get into college." Rather, he asserts, "education for citizenship is the primary purpose of universal education" (p. 85). In order to achieve this purpose, he contends that public schools should assume responsibility to encourage the study of, and commitment to, the value claims of political democracy, to transmit realistic and scholarly political knowledge, and to convey skills in participation needed for the continuation and enhancement of democracy.

Butts makes no claims of originality in offering his Decalogue. Over a decade ago, in fact, Brian Crittenden (1972) concluded his analysis of the Mackay Report on religious and moral education for the public schools of Ontario by affirming the appropriateness of public schools' espousal of "the core of beliefs and practices that

all moral points of view in our society must accept" (p. 64). Particularly, Crittenden suggests such beliefs and practices would include "personal freedom and thus...toleration of diversity in thought and action,...fairness and concern for the interests of others," and recognition of "the dignity and worth of each human being as a moral agent" (p. 53).

Crittenden reached a similar conclusion in Education and Social Ideals (1973), as did the Englishman R.S. Peters in Moral Development and Moral Education (1980), where he affirms that "in a pluralistic society like ours there must be a high degree of consensus at the level of those fundamental principles which underlie democratic procedures" (p. 77).

Butts, Crittenden, and Peters concur that public schools in a democracy can and should emulate and teach such values because they view the ultimate end of education to be a moral end, in the sense that John Dewey (1978) envisioned when he wrote that:

> the business of the educator--whether parent or teacher--is to see to it that the greatest possible number of ideas acquired by children and youth are acquired in such a vital way that they become moving ideas, motive-forces in the guidance of conduct. This demand and this opportunity make the moral purpose universal and dominant in all instruction--whatsoever the topic. (p. 2).

In related fashion, Thomas Green (1984) has recently argued that although we live in a society and world increasingly dependent upon high technology, it is highly unlikely that "modern technology will pose any significantly new moral problems. The likelihood is greater...that it will simply make the old ones more apparent" (p. 1). Green goes on to describe the majority of efforts at moral education as focusing primarily upon the individual's development. Secondarily, we turn to the question as to how this accomplishment is related to public life. However, he continues, a different perspective is possible, one which affirms that initial attention to the moral skills required for public life is more conducive to a private morality than the

reverse. "By such a thesis, civic education can no longer be viewed as a mere addendum...to moral education, something that comes after the main business has been accomplished. On the contrary, education for a public life would come to be viewed as the central problem" (p. 7). Thorough understanding of, and attention to, civic education would then allow us to approach the related problem of the formation of private conscience.

Additional and widespread support of Butts' position has been raised. An entire recent issue of the Journal of Teacher Education (November/December, 1983) was devoted to his proposal and indicated extensive agreement with the need for emphasis on civic education. Teacher educators and professors of other disciplines across the country responded with thought-provoking commentaries on the problems and possibilities of implementing Butts' suggestions. Predictably, much attention was focused upon the content of civic education, particularly as it encompasses the rule of law in a Constitutional democracy. Murphy (1983), O'Neil (1983), and Adler (1983) argue that all students, and especially prospective teachers, must thoroughly understand American history and the Constitution, Bill of Rights, and other documents which have played a significant role in shaping and reflecting the course of our history. Murchland and Cortes emphasize the education role of the mass media and technology in shaping U.S. opinion and relations with other nations.

Indisputably, the content of civic education is of prime importance. Butts cogently emphasizes the need for increased knowledge of our democratic institutions and points out the wealth of material which already exists to support educators in this task. However, the one-sided emphasis of content to the neglect of the process of democracy represents a real danger to the educator.

In this regard, Burstyn (1983) that simply piling more content onto the civic education curriculum would do little by itself to heighten the civic awareness and participation of students. Instead, she argues for

careful attention to the process of the democratic dialogue, especially through inviting all parties, both within and without the educational fraternity, to open participation. Similarly, Torney-Purta (1983) notes the need for prospective teachers to become facile with democratic process within the classroom so as to create an atmosphere conducive to open questioning and discussion. She also notes recent research which has enhanced our understanding of cognitive and affective developmental stages. She contends that teacher effectiveness in engaging students in meaningful discussion and study would be greatly improved by thorough comprehension of the developmental processes.

The consensus certainly appears to indicate that the time is right for renewed attention and commitment to civic education. Obviously public schools and teacher-education programs cannot singlehandedly revitalize American democracy. But they can and should play a vital role in focusing our attention on the purposes of public education in a democracy like ours. In doing so, however, educators must be careful to balance their emphasis on the content of civic education with equal commitment to democratic process, seeking to model in practice the values they would pass on to students. As already pointed out, any real revitalization of civic learning will not be brought about by simply adding additional content to the course of study. A related danger arises from an overly narrow definition of the scope of civic education.

It seems likely that, as we have done traditionally, we would tend to assign major responsibility for civic education to the social studies teacher, but a careful reading of Butts' Decalogue suggests possibilities for enlivening not only the social studies but all subject areas. For example, the fifth uniting value which he identifies, Personal Obligation for the Public Good, could and should be studied and discussed in a number of areas. In a biology class students might focus on the ethical questions arising from genetic research or such currently topical questions as the use of animal organs for human transplants. Such issues will continue to provoke

lively public discussion. It is imperative that an informed public which is able to ask pertinent questions be ready to deal with such issues. For this to occur, it is essential such topics be understood and debated by students. The same value could be the focus of a Problems of Democracy class's consideration of Watergate or the current Central American crisis, a topic which would also impinge upon the value of International Human Rights. The possibilities for literature and composition classes would appear to be limited only by the teacher's imagination. Even mathematics, an area often seen as difficult to relate to values-laden issues, could easily assess the applications and misapplications of statistical analyses and other quantitative measures to population growth, world hunger, and the arms race.

While the renewal of civic education can enhance, and be enhanced by, study in all areas, prospective teachers will not invite their students to the dialogue unless they themselves are committed to, and facile with, the process. Hence, the major question confronting teacher educators: how to provide our students with the needed understandings and skills and the motivation and commitment to implement them. Just as Butts, Burstyn, and Torney-Purta have argued, it is essential that future teachers understand American history and democratic institutions, classroom climate, and the developmental process. It is also imperative that they be able to apply such understandings to their own classrooms, an outcome that appears unlikely unless we engage with them in the dialogue.

Butts has suggested a starting point, his Decalogue. Teacher educators must join their students in asking what is the purpose of education in a democracy such as ours. Additionally, we must challenge students to see beyond the boundaries of their major or special area of interest to the implications that area holds for society and the world, and vice-versa. In many ways, this ongoing discussion must be an inductive, searching process and will require commitment of time and energy. Specifically pertinent would be cross-departmental study, perhaps through a course

entitled the Development of a Personal Philosophy of Education, which would continue through the junior and senior years. Such a course would engage students and teachers in exploring and defining the purposes of education in a democracy, as well as the inherent values which bespeak the practice of democracy. The major requirement for the course would be a personal statement of the student's philosophy of education, a 'working' paper to be reviewed and revised as the student completed preparation for student teaching. The dialogue and study of the course need to be reflected in ongoing discussion throughout the teacher-education program, an open conversation to continually direct our attention to the central task before us--education for responsible citizenship in a just world.

Ideally, each student would carry one credit per semester in this course, meeting weekly in a seminar setting. However, practical technicalities are insignificant compared with two essential ingredients: content which focuses on the value dimensions of democratic public education and absolute commitment to democratic process, as evidenced by students and teachers together identifying, defining, and modeling the shared values, such as mutual respect and tolerance, which through their practice define democracy and real devotion to learning.

To initiate the dialogue, each student might be asked to write his/her philosophy of education. These papers would then be collected and saved so that students could reread their initial attempts and compare them with their philosophies as they stand at the end of the seminar experience. To consider the value commitments which support democratic procedure, students would then be asked to create their own lists of shared values--to compare, contrast, and revise them. Comparison of their lists with Butts' Decalogue might then lead to a class statement. Of course, other documents such as the Cardinal Principles or The Education of Free Men in American Democracy could be studied to broaden student perspectives.

It is possible that resistance to the idea and process of identifying and supporting shared values will arise. If not explicitly expressed by students, professors may choose to raise the issue. Whatever the origin, such questions and challenges should be welcomed as probing the very heart of the tenuous balance between individual and public rights and responsibilities inherent to democracy and democratic education. What better avenue for exploring issues of intellectual freedom and recognizing that our willingness and freedom to deal with such questions delineates more clearly our shared commitment to respect for, and pursuit of, truth and other related values.

Shortly after World War II, John Childs (1950) affirmed that "the young acquire the sentiments, the faiths, the attitudes, and the allegiances of the democratic way of life only as they are nurtured in them. The development of these enduring emotional and intellectual dispositions is a responsibility of any school that purports to serve as the educational agency of the democratic community" (p. 55). The fulfillment of this responsibility will be achieved to the degree that we prepare teachers who understand and are devoted to the democratic process.

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THE SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS PROGRAM: IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHER EDUCATION

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Making Schools Effective

Nearly everyone believes that America's schools need to be more effective. The questions that are debated concern how to do it and whom to involve.

Until recently, the dominant policy influencing American education has assumed that schooling can be improved only by changing the society as a whole; that children have been so shaped and influenced by massive social forces that schools can do little to help or alter their lives. The schools themselves can hardly make a difference, the policy suggests; almost nothing can be done to appreciably improve the performance of children who are socially, economically, and educationally deprived.

The major forces in shaping this policy of "schools don't make a difference" were the studies completed by Coleman (Coleman, et al., 1966) and Jencks (Jencks, et al., 1972) and their associates more than a decade ago. Coleman's massive study of American schools was commissioned by the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and focused on questions about the equality of educational opportunity. The Report concluded that "when pupil social-class and home background were taken into account, little variation in school achievement was left to be accounted for in differences in school programs and facilities." The Report seemed to validate both the conservative contention that big-government interference had failed, and the liberal point of view that society needs to be revamped. It was a most useful instrument for the politicians and reformers. It was a devastating position for education itself.

The controversial findings of the Coleman Report have been the subject of several major reanalyses, one of which was the inequality study completed by Jencks in one of the most controversial books in American education (Jencks et al., 1972). Basically, Jencks confirmed Coleman's 1966 conclusions about the education of American youth.

From the outset, the Coleman Report was criticized on several grounds. The methodology used by Coleman and his associates was challenged. Some researchers (Madaus, et al., 1980) pointed to problems pertaining to nonresponses and selective participation and to possible defects in the report's method of analysis. Others questioned the meanings of terms and the critical definitions used. What kinds of achievement were meant? For whom? For what? If what was studied by Coleman appeared to make little difference, should other aspects of schools be examined? Coleman had found that the strongest relationship to achievement among students was attitude, in addition to social-class and home background. This might have been a clue to follow in further studies, but political use of Coleman's findings countered such possibilities. The federal government administration in 1969 focused on tested achievement, not educational opportunity.

The Work of Ronald Edmonds

Research during the 1970's seemed to turn away from Coleman's approach and began to study factors to make schools effective in influencing student performance. Many researchers were involved and many long, difficult projects were pursued to get at the elusive elements of education that sparked students' learning despite class or family influence. Ronald Edmonds and John Frederiksen (1979), interested in the quality of education provided to poor and minority children in inner-city Detroit, sought to discover instructionally effective schools in Detroit's Model Cities Neighborhood. For them, effective schools were at or above the city average grade equivalent in mathematics and reading, as measured by the Stanford

Achievement Test and the Iowa Test of Basic Skills. They found eight out of twenty. Once the so-called effective schools had been located, they sought to examine the relationship between student-family background and school-building effectiveness. They contrasted two elementary schools -- one effective, one not -- along eleven indicators of socioeconomic status. The similarity between the two schools according to these indicators, along with the differences in average student achievement between the two sample schools, led Edmonds and Frederiksen to infer that there were indeed school factors that account for improved student performance. Since then, Edmonds has been one of the most outspoken critics of Coleman's Report.

Edmonds then proceeded to seek the critical school factors found in effective schools and absent in declining schools. Edmonds' research took him to on-site studies in schools in Michigan and New York. What he found was that effective schools share a climate that make it incumbent on all personnel to be instructionally effective for all pupils, and that one of the main characteristics of effective schools is that they are as anxious to avoid things that do not work as they are committed to implementing things that do.

More specifically, Edmonds found five factors associated with effective schools:

*A schoolwide emphasis on the basic skills;

*A disciplined school environment,

*Supportive leadership from school administrators,

*Careful teacher monitoring of student progress, and

*The expectation that students will succeed to the limits of their potential.

Edmonds' work continues today and seeks to articulate further the five factors as key elements of school effectiveness. Other researchers are trying to identify subfactors and to determine the interrelationships that are desirable for practical

operation in the everyday activities of effective schools. Edmonds has built an impressive cornerstone for the effective schools movement.

The Rutter Study

In 1979, a significant longitudinal study of 12 London secondary schools was reported in Fifteen Thousand Hours by Michael Rutter and his associates (Rutter et al., 1979). The findings of the five-year effort confirmed Edmonds' position that schools do make a difference. Rutter and his colleagues discovered dramatic variations in the learning and behavior of students in different schools, even when their social backgrounds were held constant. The British researchers went beyond this general finding to pinpoint the specific differences in school that appear to cause divergent student outcomes. Much of what Rutter found is similar to the results of Edmonds' work.

In general terms, Rutter found that the character of a school as a social institution seems to be most influencial in making it educationally effective. Variations with respect to degree of academic emphasis, teaching patterns, types of incentives and rewards, and pupil responsibilties are all associated with effectiveness. Schools high in these dimensions, as with Edmonds' factors, produce students who perform better on academic achievement tests, conduct themselves better in school, have higher attendance rates, and are less delinquent.

Specifically, the Rutter study found that successful schools: 1) are committed to student learning, 2) create a climate of high expectations, 3) respect students as responsible individuals, and 4) provide a pleasant physical environment. These dimensions, quite similar to the five factors of effective schooling advocated by Edmonds, were analyzed by comparing data collected over time with populations in the 12 London schools. The combination of long-term data and extensive background information gathered on each student make it possible for Rutter to unravel the relative effects of intake differences and school processes in ways that

no other research effort has yet accomplished. Fifteen Thousand Hours is currently a favorite topic of discussion among school personnel and policy makers.

Wilbur Brookover and Lawrence Lezotte's Contribution

Ronald Edmonds' work of the early 1970s was related to many projects being conducted by the Institute for Research on Teaching at Michigan State University. Two researchers at the Institute, Wilbur Brookover and Lawrence Lezotte, like Edmonds, had concluded that schools do make a difference to youngsters' education under specific circumstances, and that teachers' thoughts and decisions, in particular, can be studied for their influence on school effectiveness. The findings of Brookover and Lezotte are another important source for the current school-effectiveness movement.

Brookover and Lezotte (1979) examined several elementary schools in Michigan in terms of their statewide assessment-test scores over a three-year period. Looking at eight schools, of which six were improving and two were declining, they found that improving school staffs:

*have higher levels of expectations for students,

*believe that all children can master basic objectives,

*identify and stress priority for math and reading,

*accept and use the statewide test as a valid indicator of educational progress,

*evaluate school and student achievement of objectives for the purpose of improvement,

*have principals who function as instructional leaders,

*accept and are committed to staff responsibility for student achievement.

Their findings, too, countered Coleman's "schools make no difference" position. Many of Edmonds' factors are embedded in the results of their research, and the

dimensions proposed by Rutter are not fundamentally different. Currently, Brookover is looking at secondary schools as he pursues many of the findings first suggested by the Michigan studies. In those institutions, too, Brookover emphasizes that effectiveness research should particularly be concerned with school characteristics that are significantly related to the outcomes for students and the working conditions for teachers. Such outcomes constitute learned behavior; and the achievement of such behaviors, deemed worthwhile by a particular group or school or school board, is the special task of education in that school. Making such a school effective in helping students acquire desired behaviors and goals, according to Brookover, depends on how well the overall institution is organized. Brookover believes that learning environments should 1) serve all the students, and 2) involve equally all the teachers and administrators on the staff.

Brookover provides a frame of reference for examining schools that incorporates those factors and dimensions as presented by Edmonds and Rutter. His frame of reference includes three aspects: the ideology of the school (largely the beliefs and attitudes of persons in the institution), the social structure of the school (the relationships and roles of individuals and groups), and the instructional practices in the school (the actions and activities related to teaching and assessing the school's program).

Brookover does not see the three aspects as totally independent entities. The ideology of the school interacts with the social structure; instructional practices are related to both the culture and the social structure. A question to be raised is how one aspect may increase the achievement of some students, while at the same time it deters outcomes for others. These relationships have not yet been fully studied. If schools could coordinate efforts to work on characteristics under each of Brookover's aspects, they might be able to determine what mix of practices and strategies maximizes gains for most students. No researchers (as yet) can definitely

determine that for a given school. Making a school an effective institution is largely in the hands of the staff who choose to work at that task in a school-wide, cooperative effort.

The Significance of Effective School Studies

The effective-schools movement has produced a great deal of research and has raised many questions about current education. It has provided practitioners with a new point of departure for improving schools. It has suggested new relationships among 1) scholarly research, 2) real school practice, and 3) better school-level planning by administrators and teachers. Most theoreticians and practitioners agree that there is a need for further examination of the factors suggested by such writers as Edmonds, Rutter, Brookover, and Lezotte. Some researchers, such as Cohen (1981), are concerned about the methods employed to bring about school effectiveness and call for an earnest effort to improve the instrumentation, procedures, and analyses used. Others call for more exact definition and description, as well as better strategies of application.

The literature on effective schools has become the dynamic topics of projects and conferences across America (Harvard Graduate School of Education Association Bulletin, 1980). The exceptional schools highlighted in effective school studies, such as revealed in the recent Phi Delta Kappa project (Duckett, et al., 1980) are the case studies that inspire school staffs to improve their own institutions. A clear and concerted viewpoint has recently captured America's educational imagination: schools do make a difference -- especially when their staffs commit themselves to working on being effective and set out together to do something about it.

Implications for Teacher Education

The research on school effectiveness has implications for programs of teacher training. Ronald Edmonds (1983) considers three contextual aspects as essential knowledge for beginning educators resulting from the school effectiveness research. Those contextual aspects are intellectual, psychometric, and organization.

The intellectual aspect deals with teacher decisions regarding instructional strategy as it relates to achievement. (Achievement refers to pupil acquisition of basic school skills as measured by standardized achievement tests.) One interpretation that widely permeates teacher training programs is the "familial effects" interpretation (Edmonds, 1983). This interpretation claims that the relationship between pupil performance and pupil social class is causal. Middle-class children are presumed to bring to school linguistic, cultural and social advantages that prepare them to learn in ways that most schools prefer to teach. Lower-class and minority children are presumed to bring to school linguistic, cultural, and social disadvantages that impair their cognition and ill prepare them to learn in the ways that most schools prefer to teach. These intellectual conclusions tend to lower educators' expectations of the academic ability of low-income and minority students.

Research on expectations (Good, 1981) firmly substantiates that students for whom teachers have low expectations receive less academic work, less rigorous work, and are judged against a lower academic standard. Brookover and Lezotte (1979) and Edmonds (1983) confirm that family background is a powerful correlate of pupil performance, but they reject family background as the cause of the correlation. Instead, they conclude that school response to family background is the cause of lower achievement for low-income and minority students. They also assume that basic achievement derives primarily from school influences.

As a result of these conclusions, preservice programs of teacher training should include alternative interpretations of the origin of achievement. Prospective teachers should be exposed to a wide range of learning theories. They must also understand that the acceptance of one of these theories will have profound implications for their instructional strategies. Prospective teachers must be taught that their behavior affects the learning of students. If an attitude of low

expectation is signaled to students, low achievement will certainly result. The self-fulfilling prophecy, one reaps what he sows, comes to mind in this discussion.

Another important inclusion in teacher preparation programs should be the message that teachers do make a difference and can have an impact on all children. Teachers must believe they can be effective. Many beginning teachers (and veterans) despair when they are assigned to schools with high enrollments of lower-class and minority students. This despair is caused by the familial effects interpretation of achievement.

The next contextual aspect Edmonds feels is pertinent to teacher education is the psychometric feature. Prospective teachers must have a firm understanding of testing and measurement. Edmonds (1983) avers that the fairest testing includes curriculum-based, criterion-referenced, standardized measures of pupil progress. This type of testing focuses on the extent to which the school and classroom effectiveness cover the full range of the pupil population. According to Edmonds, the principal methodological message to be conveyed to prospective teachers is the need for dispersing the distribution of achievement. The interaction between achievement and social class can only be sorted out when test results permit an equal representation of mastery across social-class subsets.

Evaluation cannot be regarded as being essentially for the benefit of teachers and administrators. Evaluation must be viewed in terms of the contribution that it can make to students. If properly used, evaluation procedures contribute to improved student learning across all social-class subsets.

The final contextual aspect is the organizational feature. One of the most powerful predictors of teacher performance is the nature of the school in which the teacher works (Edmonds, 1983). Therefore, prospective teachers must be taught that they cannot close their classroom door and sustain the classroom environment necessary for teacher effectiveness. The social dimension of teaching and learning

should be emphasized in teacher training. Working together in groups is a powerful method when improvement is being sought. Also, teachers' dependence on collegiality when working toward school improvement should be stressed. Alone, teachers lack the power to influence the larger school environment. As a group, teachers in a building can alter forces hindering improvement.

Implementing some of the preceding suggestions in teacher training programs would enable prospective teachers to see the contribution research can make to practice. The research on school effectiveness has proven that schools can succeed. An awareness of that research by prospective teachers can facilitate the improvement process.

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STAFF DEVELOPMENT: WE MUST CULTIVATE OUR GARDEN

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Much has been said recently about improving the effectiveness of today's schools. According to recent polls, the public is becoming increasingly concerned over the quality of their schools and the competency of the teachers employed in those schools. Certainly this public interest is apparent through the increased reform activity at all levels of government. Odden and Odden (1984) cite 250 separate government task forces and eight major state-wide reform programs aimed at up-grading the quality of education at the elementary, secondary and post-secondary levels. The majority of these reform efforts appear to be directed toward improving the quality of preservice preparation of teachers.

It becomes apparent after surveying current reform literature that suggested reform efforts are often centered on improving teacher education programs and on ways to recruit more academically able individuals to the teaching profession. The professional development of inservice teachers and the subsequent retention of academically able individuals currently employed as teachers appears to be addressed only tangentially. This is curious in light of the 1984 Educational Research Service Poll which found that only 5.7 percent of classroom teachers have been teaching for less than five years and 27 percent have been teaching for two decades or more. If, in fact, few new teachers are entering the work force, why are the majority of reform efforts directed toward upgrading teacher education programs? Certainly reform efforts directed toward improving the current work force would be a more effective way to upgrade teacher competency.

Educational reformers seem to be suggesting that school districts hire their way out of the current malaise in their schools. They imply that if teacher

education programs were to recruit and train better teachers, these legions of new teachers would join the schools and breathe new life into the teaching profession. This represents reasoning of the past, not the future. In the past, demand for teachers was high and districts relied on high turnover to insure an infusion of recently trained and highly motivated new teachers into the schools. Evidence that this infusion produced the anticipated continuous renewal of staff competence is dubious at best. But in today's climate of stable work forces and declining student enrollments, even this tenuous solution is not plausible. It is doubtful whether school districts could hire enough new teachers to have a significant impact on their present work force. In addition, with the public clamoring for reform, school districts need to look toward upgrading the competency of teachers who have been recruited and trained in the past. This group of teachers represents one of the nation's greatest assets. The teaching profession must stop looking elsewhere for solutions to school reform. Improving the competency of teachers and the quality of the schools rests on the profession's ability to renew itself through staff development. This paper will explore what constitutes effective staff development and what possible directions school districts might take in the future to provide effective staff development.

The Realities of Staff Development

If a major renewal is to occur within the ranks of the teaching profession, we must consider the current system of rewards that affect teachers' staff development choices. The current reward system in place in school districts throughout the nation encourages teachers to attend graduate courses or pursue advanced degrees for personal advancement. There is serious doubt that these graduate courses or advanced degrees can directly produce more effective teachers. These courses tend to be didactic in nature and taught by individuals who have been away from the

classroom for a number of years. Lytle (1981) reviewed 14 major studies on school and teacher effectiveness and found no evidence that the quality of instruction or the performance of students was affected by the advanced degrees held by the teacher. Still, as long as this reward system is in effect, teachers will continue to pursue advanced degrees.

Most teachers are committed to the notion that staff development's primary value is financial (Allen, 1971). Their motivation for participating in university-based staff development is the extrinsic rewards presented by school districts in the form of salary credits, pay increments, tuition reimbursements and promotion (Lippitt & Fox, 1971). This type of participation not only promotes conformity among teachers but also drains the school districts of financial resources necessary to providing school-based inservic programs. Thus the planning and implementation of long-term school-based staff development programs becomes difficult due to inadequate finances. Most districts' expenditures for school-based staff development are minor when compared with expenditures for salary differentials for advanced degrees and graduate credits (Lytle, 1983).

Even if school districts were willing to plan a comprehensive program of staff development, derived from research, the financial resources would not be available for implementation. Most school-based inservice programs are planned by administrators with emphasis on "one-time only" workshops. Because of limited finances, short-term planning becomes the rule rather than the exception. Most school district administrators, when faced with inservice day planning, literally "go begging" to find topics and speakers. Little consideration is given to the validity of teachers' needs when scheduling workshops. Availability of outside individuals to present workshops determines the agenda. This once again places the locus of control firmly outside the realm of the school. Obviously, the current approach to staff development erodes the school districts' financial base and discourages the active input of teachers and administrators in long term planning.

Two Current Views of Staff Development

Essentially, staff development programs are based on one of two perspectives. The first perspective assumes a deficit exists: there is something wrong with the teacher that must be remediated (Jackson, 1971). The diagnosis and subsequent remedy is usually formulated by individuals whose responsibilties lie outside of the classroom (e.g., principals and specialists). This highly prescriptive top-down approach severely limits the teachers' input in decision-making. Teacher input has been often cited in research as a major factor in effective staff development. This perspective sends a clear message to teachers that someone else knows what's best for them. Those of us who have participated in staff development programs adhering to this perspective have experienced first hand this negative message. My most recent experience was as a presenter. The local school district's language arts coordinator asked if I would participate in their up-coming inservice day. She informed me that her teachers could not teach reading comprehension and asked if I would be willing to present a workshop on reading comprehension instruction. When I arrived at the school and began to address the group, it became apparent to me that these teachers were well versed in reading comprehension instruction. They did, however, have concerns about teaching other reading skills. I had unwittingly become involved in the highly ritualized, largely meaningless deficit perspective of staff development.

McLaughlin and Berman (1977) refer to the second view of staff development as the "developmental strategy of staff development." This perspective appears to be supported by research and is the perspective which holds the most promise for bringing about renewal in the profession of teaching. The developmental perspective does not represent a single program but characterizes a school district's approach to staff development. McLaughlin and Berman have enumerated the characteristics of a developmental district to be the following:

1. Developmental districts give discretionary funds as well as authority to principals and teachers to do the job.

2. The continued training of principals is considered appropriate and necessary.

3. Developmental school districts have established teachers' centers.

4. Districts who have effective staff development programs do not insist on a standardized program. They emphasize small groups that work collaboratively on the same needs.

5. Developmental districts rely on local resource people to guide innovative efforts whenever possible. These districts utilize joint governance in determination of staff development needs and activities. These districts consider joint governance as critical to staff development because different people in the system have very different perspectives on what teachers' needs are. A program decision structure that incorporates varying perceptions about teachers' needs is more likely to receive the support and commitment of all those involved.

6. Developmental districts use released time instead of monetary incentives for staff training.

These characteristics are in keeping with research on effective staff development programs. Research abounds with evidence of the need for a collegial relationship between teachers and administrators in the planning, implementation, and assessment of staff development programs. Lytle (1983) cited research that supports the idea that successful staff development programs were well-funded and gave considerable authority to principals and teachers. Griffin (1983), in his review of research, stressed that "systematic attention should be given to the people in the process and to the requirements of change" when planning a staff development program. Essential ingredients in Griffin's ideal model of staff development stress the collegial relationship between the administration and teachers.

School districts that follow a research-derived developmental model of staff development send a clear message to teachers that they know what's best for themselves and that staff development is an extremely valuable, long-term activity that provides for systematic, on-going renewal.

The Future Direction of Staff Development

School districts must move toward the developmental strategy of staff development. Any long-term commitment to change in this direction is a time-consuming process. Teachers will require released time from teaching duties if they are to assist with the planning and implementation of their own staff development. Financial resources committed to paying salary differentials for university-based staff development will need to be reallocated to a developmental school-based program. This reallocation will require the support and efforts of teachers' unions, administrators, school boards, higher education faculties, and the public. The commitment to long-term developmental staff training will represent the beginning of a long renewal effort.

The leadership for the change in staff development perspective will fall largely to school district administrators. Currently, administrators tend to view staff development as short term. Following a deficit perspective, they determine teacher deficiencies and prescribe one-time only workshops to remediate the problem. This view implies that instant mastery can be accomplished. Joyce and Showers (1982) disagree by drawing an analogy between educators and athletes. Athletes view mastery as a long-term process involving coaching, practice, and the eventual perfection of skills. They are aware of the tremendous effort involved in changing existing levels of proficiency. District administrators need to consider this point of view when providing leadership for change. Upgrading of teacher competency needs to be approached as a long-term continuous process.

If change is to occur in a school district, it is important to consider the organizational climate in which this change is to occur. Griffin (1983) describes this climate as the "context" in which staff development is implemented. The ability of a district to pull together the variety of resources needed to change is largely influenced by setting. If we look closely at the common thread that runs through

school district settings, it will present us with insight into how these change efforts might proceed. According to Schlecty and Vance (1983), settings are primarily divided into two distinctive types, an instructional setting and an administrative setting. The instructional setting is one in which staff development should flourish. An instructional setting promotes nurturance and growth. People who choose an instructional setting tend to work in the humanistic circles necessary for long-term growth. Currently, this setting is overwhelmingly female in composition. This setting tends to echo the approach of Japanese business in which mutual cooperation and employee input are valued. Long-term employment and continuous development are the norm. Conversely, the administrative setting is overwhelmingly male and tends to emulate American business techniques. The planning tends to be short-term and the bottom line is considered when decisions are made. The bottom line is usually money. Unfortunately, this is the setting in which we most often find our staff development efforts. If change is to occur, it is necessary to move the planning and implementation of staff development to the instructional setting. This move is highly unlikely, but districts could attempt to merge these two settings. This new setting would move the district away from an American business model and toward a Japanese management style. In this style, mutual decision making and cooperation are highly valued.

The merging of the two settings will allow for increased sharing of problems associated with instruction. Chase (1983) recommends the use of Japanese quality circles in the schools. These quality circles are similar to the problem-solving groups suggested by Joyce and Showers (1982). Both problem-solving groups and quality circles increase the degree and the nature of interaction among administrators and teachers. Their focus is to improve the product, in the case of schools, the education of children. The group focuses on how to improve this product through the following techniques:

1. Round Robin Brainstorming
2. Voting to Achieve Group Consensus
3. Data Collection
4. Decision Analysis
5. Generating Solutions
6. Management Presentation
7. Evaluation

Quality circles and small group problem-solving are ways to renew the profession from within. Any effort to improve the schools must be directed toward improving the competency of teachers and the setting in which they work. This requires financial commitment to long-term staff development and increased input from teachers to solve instructional problems. The brain trust is already there and we, as educators, must find ways to access this resource. If we continue to look for solutions that lie outside the context of the school, we will not realize significant change in the competency of teachers or the quality of the education our children receive. If we are to retain academically able individuals and attract competent new recruits to the profession of teaching, we must produce a setting that promotes growth and increased satisfaction among teachers. In short, we must cultivate our garden.

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COMPETENCY TESTING FOR TEACHERS: A QUICK SOLUTION TO THE COMPLEX PROBLEMS FACING EDUCATION

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Americans are insisting upon "excellence in education." This insistence has occurred as a result of many state and national reports that have indicated weaknesses in our current educational system. Virtually all who study and write about education come to the realization that teacher education is the foundation of our entire system of public schools. More money can be spent; more and better textbooks can be bought; facilities can be improved; new curricula can be developed and schools can be reorganized; but the strength of the system essentially lies in the capabilities of the people who teach (Mertens and Yarger, 1982).

Everyone wants our schools to be staffed by qualified and competent teachers. A Gallup poll taken in the spring of 1984 found that 89% of the public favored competency tests for teachers (Gallup, 1984). However, concern about what teachers should know and be able to do by the time they complete their training was apparent before the present calls for reform. The entire "competency-based teacher education" movement of the 1970s has apparently been overshadowed today by proposals for teacher education programs and certification based upon subject-matter achievement. Because of this public pressure for accountability, state legislatures and state board of education have had to respond with some quick solutions to some rather complex problems. The single, most visible national response has been the adoption of state-mandated competency tests for the certification of teachers (Smith, 1984).

Teachers' competency in basic skills is of major concern in most states. Sandefur (1983 a,b) has provided the most current and comprehensive profile of the teacher competency testing movement. Noting that impetus for the movement

began primarily in the southern states and spread to a total of thirty-six states from 1977 to 1983, Sandefur states: "The rapid growth of teacher competency assessment programs has been little short of phenomenal." Although there is diversity among the state testing programs, common patterns are visible. Twenty-seven states out of the thirty-six involved specify some sort of testing of basic skills, either for admissions or certification, or both. In 1984, Pennsylvania adopted the use of a competency test as part of its teacher certification requirements.

Testing in professional skills has been specified in twenty-one states; testing in academic proficiency has been specified in twenty states. The states are almost evenly divided in their use of standardized versus customized tests. Seventeen states have specified national standardized tests. The tests most frequently mentioned are the National Teachers Examination (NTE), the American College Test (ACT), the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT), and the California Achievement Test (CAT).

Sixteen states have either developed competency-based teacher education standards or are encouraging their development (Sandefur, 1983a). Georgia has one of the largest existing state developed and administered programs, and has been repeatedly cited as a forerunner in developing competency tests (Flippo and Foster, 1984). Oklahoma recently removed the power to recommend certification from the universities and has provided on-the-job assessment by a three-person committee instead. Arkansas has passed legislation that requires the state's on-the-job teachers to take competency tests (Flippo and Foster, 1984). Tennessee's pending Master Teacher Plan has similar provisions for on-the-job assessments. Because teacher certification in some states is no longer life-long but must be renewed periodically, the future is likely to hold even more emphasis on competency testing, both written and performance-based (Sandefur, 1983a).

In general, competency testing refers to the assessment of knowledge and/or performance judged necessary for a specific situation. A competency test for

teachers refers to a test developed to measure the minimum knowledge and/or skills deemed necessary for adequate performance in the classroom. One reason competency tests are being used as a means to upgrade the teaching profession is that there is a firm belief that testing can and will provide the necessary information to separate effective teachers from ineffective teachers in a definite way. Testing implies the efficacy of evaluation devices and processes: a power which has meaning, reliability, validity, and ultimate worth (Stedman, 1984).

Predictive validity relates to the accuracy of determining who is likely to succeed or fail in professional practices based upon data collected from some form of evaluation. Establishing the validity of tests has not only legal ramifications but ethical ones as well. If tests are to be used to screen individuals and potentially prevent them from entering a profession, then states and professional associations should accept the commitment to verify that the tests are professionally designed to accomplish these specific purposes. Such tests should have reasonable predictive validity, should be free of discriminatory features, and should be used in ways which protect the individual from unnecessary labeling or embarrassment (Stedman, 1984). In all probability, some of these ethical concerns will be legally demanded through future applications of the Uniform Guidelines on Employee Selection Procedures (1978, quoted in Stedman, 1984). Three significant features of these guidelines are:

(1.) Selection processes should not have an adverse impact,' i.e., create a disadvantage for members of a race, sex, or ethnic group;
(2.) When tests are used for selection purposes, content, construct, and/or criterion-referenced validity must be supported with empirical data;
(3.) The guidelines apply to licensing and certifying as well as to employment.

The legality of using the NTE for certification purposes was upheld by the United States Supreme Court in N.E.A. vs. South Carolina on January 6, 1978. Previously, a panel of federal judges had held that: "the state has the right to adopt academic requirements and use written tests designed and validated to

disclose the minimum amount of knowledge necessary to effective teaching" (Smith, 1984). It will, nevertheless, be interesting to see how significant the Uniform Guidelines become in future court decisions, especially if it is demonstrated that existing testing practices eliminate a disporportionate number of people from minority populations (Stedman, 1984).

Teacher competency tests are used primarily as gatekeepers. That is, success or failure on competency tests determines which and how many teachers can practice in the schools, without regard to regional needs or individual talents. Research suggests that competency tests have had a detrimental effect upon the professional pool of black teachers. Vargas (1983) forecasts a similar threat to future Hispanic teachers. Reports of minority performance on teacher competency exams in Florida, California, and Texas are equally discouraging (Smith, 1984). Almost without exception, cutoff scores have been recommended or established, regardless of the examination, at the precise point that eliminates a majority of the black and Hispanic candidates, but permits 78% to 90% of the white candidates to pass (Smith, 1984). The high failure rate among minority teacher candidates raises some serious questions about the use and abuse of teacher competency testing. The absence of minorities from education classes and from public school faculty rosters induces negative reverberations that reach far beyond the exclusion of minority applicants from teaching. First, the presence of minority teachers contributes to the quality of education for all children in a pluralistic society, and, second, minority teachers as role models are essential to the minority child's learning environment (Smith, 1984).

Tests have traditionally been used for at least two purposes: to demonstrate knowledge and understanding in a specific academic subject, and to measure cumulative knowledge and skill in order to acquire a degree, license, or certificate, or to gain admission to a specific program or curriculum (Pugach and Raths, 1983).

Evaluation provides room for professional judgement, whereas testing reduces such opportunity or eliminates it entirely if cutoff scores are established.

There is no agreement among educators on what a public school teacher should know and be tested on in order to qualify for a certificate. The National Teacher Examinations (NTE), which are national in scope, only purport to test a prospective teacher's academic preparation (NTE Policy Council, 1979). The NTE's only claim is that there is a relationship between the tests and "the content of teacher education programs" (1983-84 Bulletin of Information, NTE Program). They do not claim that the tests measure skills needed in the actual job of teaching. Furthermore, there is no convincing evidence of a positive relationship between the score on such teacher competency tests and increased learning by students.

Pugach and Raths (1983), in a review of the teacher testing data, note that "as appealing as the common sense argument may appear, there is scant evidence to support the contention that performance on a teacher competency test is correlated with effective teaching...In sum, the current literature fails to support the key assumption that there are tests available today which discriminate between effective and ineffective teachers" (page 41). The same point is made in another review citing different studies by two researchers from the independent Rand Corporation. Darling-Hammond and Wise (1983) state that "although teacher competency tests are a means of screening incompetent teachers, studies have not found any consistent relationship between scores on teacher competency tests and measures of teacher performance in the classroom" (page 66). In fact, taking pencil and paper tests and teaching in the classroom require quite different abilities.

Besides the current tests' emphasis on knowledge rather than performance skills, they are also avoiding ethical values, which are a crucial element of our public school education. Nor do they test for creativity or emotional maturity (Hyman, 1984). William Harris (1981), director of Teacher Programs and

Services and NTE tests, speaks directly to this fundamental point in the logic used by advocates of teacher testing: "While they can assess knowledge and skills (necessary for insufficient attributes of the 'successful teacher') most existing tests cannot, nor do they claim to, measure such important things as teacher aptitude, interest, attitudes, motivation, maturity, creativity, and other social characteristics" (page 15). Some would say that by ignoring these elements of teaching we are missing the essence of what makes a good teacher.

On the other hand, the current emphasis on pencil and paper testing may assure the public that prospective teachers are competent with the result that there will be little demand for requiring applicants for certification to show that they possess the actual skills needed to teach (such as the skill of explaining, diagnosing reading difficulties, and using a variety of questioning techniques). Furthermore, the testing of teachers, as now conceived, will help to solidify the traditional separate and fragmented subjects now taught in teacher education programs (Hyman, 1984). Since teachers will need to pass standardized tests in a specialized discipline, teachers will continue to focus on specialized subjects when they prepare to teach and when they actually do teach. This will continue to support the high degree of specialization demanded by industry. By preparation and inclination, therefore, teachers will not be broadly prepared to deal with a problem-centered curriculum Hyman, 1984).

The combination of acceptability of teacher testing and the availability of "teacher competency" tests could possibly lead to four other developments (Hyman, 1984):

> (1.) The state will require administrators to pass a test for their certification.
> (2.) Teachers will be tested before being granted tenure.
> (3.) Prospective teachers will have an alternative to the usual college certification programs by scoring high enough on some standardized, legally sanctioned tests.
> (4.) The states will utilize testing for certifying private school teachers and those who teach in non-school settings. (page 17).

College teacher preparation programs are reforming their own courses and admissions policies. They will not rely solely upon testing, but will abide by a resolution adopted by the Board of Directors of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) in February, 1983: "Be it resolved that no program shall be devised which places sole reliance upon a single measure or upon a single assessment technique." Teacher education programs will use tests as one important assessment technique, just as NTE officials propose (NTE Policy Council, 1979). The AACTE passed a resolution in 1980 stating that it "supports a test of basic skills as a criterion for entry or continuance in teacher education programs." The influence of teacher testing may well continue to expand in these programs. Faith in testing practices, whether justified or not, is firmly rooted. Current postures in our society support an increased emphasis on measuring competency, and teacher education will probably continue to receive specific attention (Stedman, 1984). The real and unrecognized danger is that this new credibility does not spring from improvements in teacher education programs. In fact, simply requiring more and more students to pass some sort of competency test, either for admission to a professional education program or for obtaining a teaching certificate, will serve only to lessen the pressure at all levels for curricular reform in the basic skills of English usage, spelling, and mathematics (Gallegos, 1984).

A point that needs to be analyzed about the competency testing movement is that it may force the nation to face one of its greatest failures in education - the failure to understand minority achievement and to develop instructional delivery systems which are successful with minority youth. Competency testing eliminates a disproportionate number of minority candidates.

> Competency testing forces equity and excellence to be dichotomies and demands an elitist shift from equity to excellence in the nation's thinking. A democratic society cannot have excellence in education without equity. Clearly, any professional practice that excludesdisproportionate numbers of minorities represents neither excellence nor equity (Smith, 1984, page 9).

In the next decade testing will maintain the status quo rather than introducing important innovations for achieving excellence. Testing appears only to guarantee the elimination of minority teachers in a decade when they will be sorely needed.

Based on the present variety of competency tests, it appears unlikely that reciprocity of teacher certification across states will be encouraged by the use of teacher competency exams. issues related to the identification of test content suggest, however, that state departments could work toward this goal with professional organizations both statewide and nationally. A pooling of results would provide broader feedback on test development (Flippo and Foster, 1984).

Educational reform is needed in several areas simultaneously; therefore, to confine efforts to only one area is to do a disservice to our schools. The current call for teacher testing must not lull us into thinking that our efforts to reform the curriculum, the learning environment, and teaching practices are now unnecessary. On the contrary, the most immediate need is in these areas and not in the testing of teachers (Hyman, 1984). However, testing is not likely to go away. Competency testing is a measure that is firmly established and in some cases legislated. Testing will continue to be used for entrance into the professions and for measuring the potential of practicing professionals.

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TEACHER EDUCATION IN AGRICULTURE

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Public school education in the United States has been under the close scrutiny of taxpayers, legislators, parents, and academicians since the first dollars of public funds were authorized for educational purposes. The 1980's have brought even closer examination after an era of national inflation and recession made excessive demands on the Federal treasury and copious reports were circulated disclosing many high school students' inability to read and write. Vocational agriculture education has not escaped the public furor and insistence upon a quality and justifiable program.

Vocational agriculture education has met with other obstacles besides dwindling funds and a public outcry for a higher quality education. Agriculture itself, though the nation's leading industry and the leading exporter of American goods, is not thought of as being very important since fewer than three percent of the population is engaged in the production of food and fiber for ourselves and over three-fifths of our country's exports. Vocational agriculture education is generally only associated with preparing individuals to enter this ever decreasing number of jobs in the production chain. People employed in agriculture and agricultural education are located in low population areas and have few contacts with the high population, heavily represented, urban areas.

This identity problem faced by farmers and agriculturalists carries over into colleges and universities where teacher education in agriculture has a long standing identity problem as to whether it belongs housed within a College of Agriculture or a College of Education. Beyond that, agricultural teacher education is experiencing problems with which institutions should train vocational agriculture teachers.

Agricultural Education in History

Agricultural education in the United States' public high schools is fewer than seventy-five years old; however, the present comprehensive system of public education in agriculture in the United States had its origin with the Morrill Act of 1862. Abraham Lincoln's signature was affixed to two separate Acts of Congress in 1862 that provided Federal support for education, experimentation, and dissemination of information relating to agriculture. Establishment of the United States Department of Agriculture was the first legislation passed. Second, the previously mentioned Morrill Act, better known as the Land-Grant College Act, provided for grants of public land to each state, with the funds from the sale of this land to be used to establish a college of agriculture and mechanic arts. The Department of Agriculture was raised to Cabinet status in 1889. The Land-Grant College Act, administered by the Department of Agriculture, resulted in the creation of residential agricultural education institutions and in the eventual establishment of experimental stations and cooperative extension work.

Three other Acts of Congress became the foundation for today's agricultural education programs. The Hatch Act of 1887 authorized monies to the states for the support of agricultural experiment stations. The Smith-Lever Act established the Cooperative Extension Service as an entity of each land-grant college in 1914, resulting in programs for the diffusion of useful and practical information in agriculture and home economics. The National Vocational Education (Smith-Hughes) Act, passed in 1917, provided permanent annual appropriations for the promotion of vocational education; co-operation with the states in the payment of salaries of teachers, supervisors, or directors of agricultural subjects and teachers of trade, home economics and industrial subjects; and co-operation with the states in the preparation of teachers of vocational subjects.

Other Federal Acts, such as the George-Reed Act of 1929, The National Defense War Training Acts, the George-Barden Act of 1946, and Acts to extend the

Smith-Hughes Act to Hawaii and Puerto Rico, subsequently followed to supplement the Smith-Hughes Act. The Smith-Hughes Act, and subsequent legislation, provided funds to promote vocational education in agriculture for present and prospective farmers. The Vocational Education Act of 1963 amended the earlier legislation in an important way for vocational agriculture:

> Any amounts allotted (or appropriated) under such titles, Act, or Acts for agriculture may be used for vocational education in any occupation involving knowledge and skills in agricultural subjects, whether or not such occupation involves work of the farm or of the farm home, and such education may be provided without directed or supervised practice on a farm.

This amendment opened the door for agricultural educaton to be taught for the vast agribusiness occupations that are present in our economy. It granted many individuals who need agricultural education for their work the opportunity to obtain systematic instruction in agriculture in public schools.

Amendments to the Vocational Education Act of 1963 have eliminated sex discrimination, mandated the use of advisory councils and program evaluation, provided for special programs for the disadvantaged, promoted vocational guidance and counseling as well as exemplary and innovative programs, and improved the vocational education opportunities for women. Legislation now mandates that vocational education in agriculture prepare students for the world of work in the following occupational areas.

1. Agricultural production.
2. Agricultural supply and services.
3. Agricultural mechanics.
4. Agricultural products.
5. Ornamental horticulture.
6. Agricultural resources.
7. Forestry
8. Other agriculture including professions.

Preparing Teachers of Vocational Agriculture

In most states. the land-grant university, where the state college of agriculture is located, has been designated by the state board for vocational education to receive funds for support of an approved program for preparation of

teachers of agriculture. The functions to be performed, standards for training offered, and qualifications of teacher educators are specified in the state plan for vocational and technical education. Legislation states that, in order to receive Federal funds, teaching certificates can only be issued to persons who are occupationally competent and possess professional teaching skills. Vocational agriculture teachers with farm backgrounds or secondary school instruction in vocational agriculture and employment in agricultural positions before graduation from college are assumed to possess these occupational competencies. Their instruction in college, therefore, should primarily be agricultural sciences and professional education courses to qualify them as beginning teachers.

The one most valuable pre-service professional course is student teaching. The amount of student teaching varies among teacher training instructions and varies from six to eighteen weeks. Prior to the semester of student teaching or within that semester, the intern teacher takes courses in methods of teaching and preparing courses of study. Baccalaureate degree requirements for a major in agricultural education typically allow for only a limited specialization in an area of agriculture such as horticulture. Agricultural science courses combining with the professional education courses required of the major allow for very few electives in the coursework of a student.

Departments of agricultural education in a university are required not only to train and certify vocational agriculture teachers; but they are also requested to provide in-service education to presently employed teachers to upgrade their occupational competencies as well as their professional teaching skills. The demands of teachers for in-service education ordinarily take the perspective of upgrading technical agriculture skills and competencies as well as providing sufficient credit hours and requirements to meet employment requirements and salary advance via additional credits or a Master's degree.

Locating Agricultural Teacher Training Departments

In 1980 there were eighty-two colleges or universities offering agricultural teacher education. In the land grant institutions, about half of the agricultural teacher education departments were located in colleges of agriculture and about half in colleges of education. Deans of agriculture generally feel that agriculture teacher training departments should be located in their colleges so that agriculture education majors can be in close contact with their subject matter professors. Deans of education generally feel that professors of agricultural education should be located administratively in the colleges of education with other professors of education. Regardless of the agriculture teacher education department's location, most agricultural education majors enroll in the colleges of agriculture. Most of the non-land-grant institutions that prepare teachers in agriculture do not even have a college of agriculture; hence, they, for the most part, are not faced with the question of where the department should be located.

The question goes beyond whether teacher training in agriculture should be done in the colleges of agriculture or in the colleges of education. The issue as to whether non-land-grant institutions should even be training vocational agriculture teachers. Few states require more than thirty vocational agriculture teachers per year; consequently, the teacher training institutions have a relatively low number of professional staff per department. Two or more training institutions in a state constitute a duplication of effort for two or more small departments where little specialization and expertise can be provided beyond basic methods and training. One larger training institution could provide more services to the pre-service student as well as the in-service education of employed teachers. Colleges of agriculture, which are located in land-grant institutions, have more available resources for providing technical knowledge and experience to undergraduates as well as employed teachers than do most non-land-grant

universities. Granted, there are non-land-grant colleges that can and do provide equal and superior agriculture teacher preparatory courses; however, this is the exception and not the rule. Agriculture teacher training institutions should be closely scrutinized, evaluated, and approved or disapproved according to The Standards for Quality in Vocational Programs of Vocational Agriculture/Agribusiness Education.

Conclusions

Agriculture education in the United States has undergone many changes in the past one hundred years, just as agriculture itself has. No longer is our society a rural, agriculture-based society. With the declining number of farms and farmers has come a declining need for agriculture educators, until the Vocational Education Act of 1963 introduced the training for all other agricultural occupations. Recent funding declines and emphasis on basic rather than vocational education again is suggesting a decline in the number of vocational agriculture teachers. Along with this decline comes a need for fewer teacher educators in agriculture. The profession's best alternative is to evaluate closely, recognize quality programs of teacher education and place its resources into those quality programs rather than funding many low quality programs.

The 1963 Vocational Education Act and subsequent amendments outlined broad new areas which vocational agriculture education should be providing instruction. Traditionalists in agriculture education have added these new areas to their vocabulary but have not added them to their instruction; over eighty percent of most states' vocational agriculture programs are in production agriculture only, leaving vast numbers of individuals untrained for the ever growing number of agri-businesses. Producers are not the only individuals needing vocational training in agriculture. Agriculture education should be visibly involved in training students for

occupations in horticulture, mechanics, sales and service, forestry, natural resources, and processing. An expanded clientele of people and a broader focus of occupational training is available to those educators who survey the societal needs and address those needs. Teacher trainers should be in the forefront of preparing agriculture teachers to adapt programs to the needs of the community; such adaptations will continue and expand the need for teacher trainers.

Communications and travel have brought the United States and the world closer together. That closeness allows people to share ideas and to join together in addressing mutual problems. Agriculture teacher educators are a small group by nature and need to join forces. Agriculture educators have found strength in the past, not from their numbers, but from their united voice as a profession; this tradition of professionalism and unity needs to be as strong today when so many segments of society are being critical of vocational education. Problems and issues of agriculture and education are viewed increasingly from a state and national reference point rather than from a local viewpoint; hence, direction and answers to problems must be addressed from the state and national level. Agriculture teacher educators and state supervisory staff should be called upon to address these issues.

Agriculture education is rather new by educational standards and it has met with some trying times. But never in the history of our country has there been a greater need for quality education in agriculture and consumerism. Teacher education departments in agriculture can make a major impact on the future vocational agriculture teachers in our nation's secondary public schools.

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TEACHER EDUCATION IN JAPAN: A CROSS-CULTURAL PERSPECTIVE

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Following the end of World War II, a group of American educators was invited to Japan by the Supreme Commander for Allied Powers (SCAP) to "rehabilitate" postwar Japanese education. This group became known as the United States Education Mission to Japan. The recommendations which it made became the educational policies of SCAP, and shaped the character of the Japanese educational system. It is significant that, to this day, the influence of Occupation policies is an integral part of contemporary Japanese education.

The Education Mission included some of the most significant names in American education, including George S. Counts, Professor of Education at Teachers College, Columbia University; Isaac L. Kansel, Professor of Comparative Education at Columbia; and George D. Stoddard, Chairman, who was President-elect of the University of Illinois. The Mission was organized into four major committees:

1) Aims and Content of Japanese Education
2) Language Reform
3) Primary and Secondary Administration
4) Teaching and the Education of Teachers

The Committee on Teaching and the Education of Teachers was headed by Frank N. Freeman, Dean of the School of Education at the University of California, and George W. Diemer, President of Central Missouri State Teachers College.

The Mission report stated that "the Reform of Teaching and the education of teachers has the same goal as the reconstruction of education in general," the democratization of the Japanese educational system (Report of the United States Education Mission to Japan, 1946:32). Because this system was in turn part of "the prewar system of Confucian nationalism under the rule of the emperor," emphasis

was placed not only on changes in administration but upon teacher reeducation as well (Nagai and Nishijima, 1975:170). Thus the report recommended an "Emergency Reeducational Program" to be implemented immediately and to cover a two-year period. Of particular concern was the recommendation that a demonstration school associated with each prefectural normal school be reorganized to reflect the democratic approach; this involved the transfer of undesirable teachers and their replacement with teachers who had adopted the more liberal teaching practices of the American occupation. Teacher representatives would then be chosen by the teachers themselves at their local schools and sent to study at the demonstration centers to return and share their experiences. Thus the attempt was made to implement educational change from within the system by reshaping teacher education programs at the source, the prefectural normal school.

The report also recommended changes of a more long-term nature through in-service programs in the areas of teacher meetings, publications, institutes, and supervision. In terms of the preparation of teachers, three areas were recommended:

1) A general or liberal education
2) A specialized knowledge of the subject matter
3) A knowledge of professional education.

A knowledge of professional education should include the observation of children in the schools and a teaching experience under supervision by all primary and secondary school teachers. Previously, this type of field experience had been limited almost exclusively to primary teachers.

A particular emphasis of the report was on the reorganization of normal schools with four-year programs, although it was recognized that primary teachers might of necessity be certified after two years. Because of the highly centralized nature of Japanese education, normal school faculties alone should be free to determine curriculum "without specific direction from government officials, except

as may be necessary to maintain standards for certification and teaching" (Mission Report, 1946:42). Because many teachers were educated in colleges other than normal schools, it was also recommended that a professional education program similar to that of the normal school be implemented at such institutions.

"It is a document of ideals high in the democratic tradition," stated MacArthur; "in devising possible means to achieve them, full cognizance has been taken of the views of the Japanese themselves regarding the problems of better schools, better teachers, and better tools of learning" (Education in the New Japan, 1948:143). It is interesting to note that MacArthur's statement regarding the "cognizance" and "views" of the Japanese was accurate. Prior to the formal organization of the American mission, the Japanese themselves were aware of SCAP's intent to reorganize Japanese education. A number of prominent Japanese educators then organized voluntarily in an attempt to influence the forthcoming American Mission which they knew would shape their educational destiny. This group was known as the "kokutai liberals" (kokutai translates as national policy), many of whom were educated in western countries. They were progressive intellectuals who nevertheless equated national policy with the emperor and thus sought a blend of American liberalism in education with the traditional pattern of Japanese culture.

This voluntary group formed the Japanese counterpart to the United States Education Mission when it arrived in March 1946. It met consistently with the American educators, on an individual basis, in the various sub-committees, and as a group, and thus took an active role in the reconstruction of their Japanese educational system (Bowles, 1985). The recommendations issued by the American mission were thus a product of American idealism, personified by the American educators on the Mission, and the Japanese perception of this idealism, as seen through the group of progressive Japanese educators who sought to blend this idealism without excluding the more traditional elements of their own culture.

The ordinary Japanese teacher seemed to accept these changes without much resistance. According to Nagai and Nishijima, "their acquiescence was a product of their training in prewar normal schools, where standardized teaching materials were memorized exactly as presented in endless drills that left no room for the development of a critical approach to learning" (1975:177). Thus the prewar education of Japanese teachers actually contributed to, rather than hindering, their acceptance of the American Occupational Reforms because the individual teacher was trained, as opposed to educated, to accept his subservient role within a centralized educational system. Progressive Japanese educators took the initiative, influenced educational policy, and shaped the new educational system while the majority of teachers simply accepted these changes. The result was the radical reconstruction of Japanese education in the post-war period from its prewar character toward the ideals not only of American democracy but also of progressive Japanese educators who themselves had suffered under prewar restrictions. The result is that contemporary Japanese education is a mixture of the American educational structure within the traditional Japanese framework, particularly in regard to teacher education.

Today, the Japanese government can state that "the teacher training system in Japan was adopted with a view to recruiting qualified teachers equipped with a broad cultural outlook and a high degree of specialization" (Mombusho, 1981:42). Teacher education occurs not only at teacher training colleges but in other universities as well. If the university has received a "course authorization" from the Mombusho, the Ministry of Education, its graduates can request a teaching certificate. Some 84% of higher education institutions in Japan have received such authorization and in March 1980, 174,500 graduates of a total of 534,200 acquired teaching certificates, although only 42,000 actually became teachers. Today there are eight state universities for teacher education and thirty-eight faculties of

education which are part of the state "composite" university. Thus, there are forty-six teacher-training institutions, each located in one of the forty-six prefectures. Public school teachers are generally products of these schools, although some teachers are trained at either private institutions or at graduate schools of teacher training.

This organization, notes Cummings, produces "teachers (who) tend universally to have similar qualifications" (1980:9). Such qualifications are based upon the fact that teaching in Japan is a respected profession with a strong historical tradition. Rohlen notes that in the prewar period, "teaching was described as a sacred profession, implying an unusually high level of dedication and self-sacrifice repaid by the respect and gratitude of the nation" (1983:214). The Japanese Teachers Union (JTU) which has arisen since the war has rejected the term "sacred" in favor of "educational laborer," yet Rohlen notes that "the public (still) views the profession's responsibilities to children as sacred" (1983:214-215).

Because employment conditions are generally favorable, providing a good income with permanent employment, qualified people are continuously attracted to the profession. Even in areas of declining population the local government will help find jobs for those lost through retrenchment. Cummings concludes that "the security that teachers enjoy enables them to run their schools without excessive influence from any outside body" (1980:12). In his ethnography of a Japanese middle school near Tokyo, Singleton writes that,

> "having started as teachers, they look forward to remaining teachers for the rest of their working lives, subject to assignments made by their employer, the prefectural Board of Education. Some had planned from childhood to be teachers, while others had drifted into teaching jobs at the end of their higher education or had used teaching positions as an escape from unpleasant situations. But, once started, none contemplated change" (1967:103).

The teaching process is shaped by the Mombusho which stands at the apex of the Japanese educational structure through the allocation of funds, adoption of

textbooks, regulation of curriculum, and establishment of evaluation standards. The administrative extension of the Mombusho is the board of education at both local and prefectural levels. The school board was introduced to the Japanese through the Mission recommendations of 1946 for the purpose of decentralizing administration. However, the school board law of 1956 resulted in the appointment of local school board members by local political officials rather than their election by the general public. Just as the local board member may be appointed by the mayor, the prefectural board member is appointed by the governor. The law also provides the Mombusho as well as the prefectural board with the right not only to offer administrative guidance to local boards but also to impose educational standards. In addition, the local board can now only recommend teacher appointments to the prefecture, which makes the final decision on hiring.

Curriculum is regulated through guidelines known as the "Course of Study" which were first initiated in 1958 with revisions every ten years. Knowledge of the Course of Study is part of the education curriculum at national universities as well as part of the teacher-qualifying examinations of each prefecture. To insure uniformity and adherence to the guidelines, the Mombusho conducts a seven-to-ten day prefectural-training program for new teachers which it finances as well. After a teacher has five years experience, and again after ten years, similar programs are undertaken to upgrade his knowledge. Promotions to administrative positions are also contingent upon further orientation in the Course of Study.

The Mombusho thus serves as the focus of a national system of education of which teacher education is also a part. It is the reality of education at the local level which caused Dore, quoted by Singleton, to write, "The Minister of Education's powers to offer guidance, advice, and assistance to local education committees are exercised in a constant stream of memoranda, outline curricula, and model sets of regulations, and these tend to carry an authority not very different from that of directives and regulations of prewar days" (1967:80).

Education in contemporary Japan is an extension of national policy indicated by a centralized system of national education, organized around a system of national examinations, and structured around a nationalized curriculum which permeates all educational levels, even teacher-training institutions. It is interesting therefore to reflect on the goals of the American Occupational Reforms and the recommendations of the United States Education Mission to decentralize and democratize Japanese education. That these reforms were implemented is obvious, but it is also apparent that when the Occupation ended in 1952, the Japanese adapted these reforms within the context of their traditional cultural pattern. The American educational system still structures the Japanese educational edifice, but the Japanese have changed that system to their own liking. Thus we might argue that the success of contemporary Japanese education is to a large extent due to the American educational structure adopted during the Occupation Reform period and adapted in a manner consistent with the patterns of traditional Japanese culture.

In regard to the educational reforms recommended by the United States Education Mission, Shimahara writes:

> for five years the Japanese attempted to learn how to implement this reform, but by 1952 they realized the essential incompatability of the U.S. educational orientation with Japanese cultural orientations. Japanese independence...led to the 'Japanization' of the U.S. educational system as it was transplanted in Japanese soil. That is, the major structural features of the system have remained unchanged to the present time, but its underlying orientation gave way in the 1950s to an orientation compatible with Japanese culture (1979:4).

Such a view provides us with a cultural perspective of education in contemporary society with a focus on the acculturation process in a complex society like Japan. The dichotomy between cognitive or cultural orientations on the one hand and the structural conditions or the institutional character of society on the other provides a useful analytical framework. "Cultural orientations are a specific pattern of value orientations unique to a particular society and are generally transmitted through the

process of enculturation. They are...superorganic principles that resist pressures for change brought about by the institutional transformation of society" (Shimahara, 1979:2). Such orientations are implicit, unverbalized, "rules of the game" which shape individual behavior in terms of the group cultural pattern. The underlying cognitive orientation which shapes the Japanese cultural pattern, according to Shimahara, is a centripetal and vertical emphasis. It is centripetal in the sense that it is based upon membership of the individual in the group as the cultural archetype and it is vertical in the sense that social relationships within the group are organized along hierarchical lines. We have only to note the Imperial Rescript on Education of 1890 to understand that the Japanese educational system was organized upon these principles through the end of World War II. Passin notes that during this period, "the official doctrine taught in the schools was essentially that of the 'Japanists" (Nihon-shugisha): Japan is a unique family-state, descended from a common ancestor...The unique Japanese family system is based on reverence for ancestors, the power and responsibility of the family head, obedience, and filial piety. Filial piety is the model for the relation of the citizen both to the state and to superiors" (1982:153). This doctrine was implemented in the schools through morals education, shuushin, through a formal morals course as well as through morals ideology woven into the fabric of the curriculum. Thus the schools from the Meiji Restoration through the contemporary period served as an agent of enculturation, transmitting the values of the culture to its youth, in a society which was nevertheless undergoing rapid modernization.

It is therefore argued that the democratic and individualistic aims of a centrifugal society such as the United States were imposed upon a society under military occupation, through its educational institutions, whose cultural orientation was historically different. The Occupational Reform period saw a lack of isomorphism between the American institutional changes imposed upon the

Japanese, particularly the educational system, and the more resistant cultural pattern. With the coming of independence, the modification of the institutional reforms was therefore inevitable to ensure that the educational process was once again inconsistent with the Japanese cultural orientation.

Despite the ideals of those representative educators who sought to change the very character of the Japanese nation through the educational process, we as teacher-educators simply cannot assume that teacher education carries the same meaning in all societies. The centralized nature of teacher-education in Japan is consistent with a cultural orientation which shapes the institutional arrangements of the total educational process. The Japanese have simply taken the best that America had to offer in this regard, from their own perspective, and, over the years, gradually adapted the American educational reforms to ensure isomorphism between their educational institutions and their cultural orientation.

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A COMPARATIVE LOOK AT TEACHER EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES, LATIN AMERICA, AND THE UNITED KINGDOM

Richard Neely and William Campbell

Increasingly, programs of teacher training are being examined critically because of reports of failure and crisis in education. While the last year witnessed these demands virulently expressed in the national press and media, only time will tell if these were merely rhetoric of if they were indicators of a fundamental desire for change in teacher education. With this in mind, the purpose of this paper is to examine teacher training in the United States in a comparative context with teacher education in Latin America and the United Kingdom. Three salient points have been selected as the foci for this discussion: entry into teacher education programs and the status teacher education has within the broader context of higher education, the problems of each system, and the strengths of each system. The value of an investigation such as this is that it allows us to take a step away from the system we may be most familiar with and view it anew, having experienced other realities and circumstances of teacher education as they exist in other parts of the world.

Teacher Education: Entry and Status

Since teacher education is a state function in the United States, it is not surprising that great diversity exists in terms of programs offered. In the state of Pennsylvania alone there are over 80 institutions offering teacher training, suggesting that the national number is indeed vast. One institution may offer many different certificate programs in such areas as Early Childhood Education, Social Studies Education, Elementary Education, and Special Education, to mention only a few. State departments of education accredit these university certificate areas with varying degrees of rigor, permanence, and grade level (Holmes, 1973). Unlike the medical and legal professions, education has no set criteria for entry nor is education necessarily a graduate level program. Entry into programs of teacher education seems more dependent on general entry standards of a university than on entry standards established by a college of education.

In Latin America, the development of normal schools has had the effect of secularizing education; however, in many areas education remains a church function. In most cases normal school education is a federal government function and is available upon completion of the equivalent of a U.S. middle school education. Thus, fourteen and fifteen year olds can complete the equivalent of U.S. grade nine and enter the teacher training normal school directly graduating at age 16 or 17 ready to enter the elementary school workplace. To teach at the secondary level one must have studied at the university level. In some countries such as El Salvador, Costa Rica, and Honduras, the Superior Normal School gives specific training to secondary level teachers. Entry into each ascending level of teacher education is dependent on successful completion of the preceding level of study. Secondary teachers are either in the process of going to university, members of the clergy, or college graduates who have a primary job in business, government, or industry and teach only to supplement the family income. Yet another category of teacher is the maestro de carrera (career teacher) who has taught for years without the benefit of formal training (Alessandro, 1984). Because of the nature of clerical training, the position of the clergy in society is largely unchanged from the middle ages when the cleric was the only educated person in the community and therefore the only person capable of teaching others. For centuries the clergy was the only group to shoulder the social responsibility of disseminating rudimentary knowledge to the masses. In some areas this function is unchanged.

There are, in the United Kingdom, two forms of teacher training currently in use, each open to students who have successfully completed A Level studies (age 19). Concurrent training offers the aspiring teacher a four year program in which academic and professional work are studied simultaneously. This training leads to a more thorough professional development with sufficient time spent building links between theory and practice, resulting in the Bachelor of Education degree

(Grainge,1984). Consecutive training offers the young pre-professional a three year Bachelor of Arts degree program with a fourth academic year devoted to educational pedagogy, leading to the Postgraduate Certificate in Education. Again entry into programs of teacher education, regardless of type, involve successful completion of prior studies and successful admission into a college or university training center. Unlike the United States, teacher training is a function of the national government and consecutive training is particularly suited to government control of the supply of teachers.

Of the three areas examined, the social position of the teacher appears best in Latin America. There, teachers are well-respected members of the community. Families still recognize the precious nature of education and what possessing it means to one's life. Today's educators face the task of maintaining respect. For teachers in the United Kingdom this will be difficult, but in the United States the task will involve regaining lost respect and this will be particularly difficult.

Problems Within the System

The systems regulating teacher education in the United Kingdom have been subject to tremendous fluctuations during the past quarter century; only recently has some degree of continuity returned. Perhaps the position of the teacher has not suffered socially in the eyes of the community at large, because the entire community has had to adjust to changing circumstances and realities. As the processes of teacher education come to be more closely incorporated into the British system of higher education, exciting possibilities exist for enriched curricula in the training process.

Public education in the United States is vast and highly decentralized. Disjointed responses to journalistic scrutiny and the glare of publicity leaves the public feeling educators cannot manage their own affairs. Some effort must be made to address issues in a united way and to recognize that professionalism entails certain qualities to which all members of the profession ascribe. A major concern is

with the quality of students who go into teaching. To keep order and be demanding, critical, and yet supportive is difficult. It requires teachers of superior quality. There is also concern over the status of the teacher in the community. Sixty years ago teachers felt good about the profession. One of the reasons for this feeling was the respect afforded teachers by the community. It is questionable whether teachers are receiving that respect now (Dupuis, 1984). Contrasting the 1930's with the present, Caswell (1966) has stated that "we thought those years were hard, and indeed they did present many difficulties, yet when I compare the situation then with the situation now -- contrasting the realities that confronted us with those you face -- the present situation seems more difficult. During the worst years of the Depression public confidence in the fundamental importance of the schools was never undermined (2-3)." It is therefore more difficult to encourage teachers to go into unsupportive communities and financially unrewarding situations. Hermanowicz (1984) points out that "for a variety of reasons, certainly economic and political as well as educational, we have experienced during the first half of the 80's an incredible array of national studies and commission reports dealing with the necessity of improving the quality of formal education in the United States. There have been over thirty such national studies and close to 200 state commissions offering recommendations for school improvement (8)."

Teachers in the United Kingdom are in particular need of salary supplementation, and as a result many teachers there must resort to second and even third jobs, if they can get them, in order to live adequately. The "taxi" professors of Latin America differ in that their teaching supplements already good incomes from business or industry. In the United States, some teachers with families must also seek a second or third income to support themselves. A diminished image of the profession results and any effort to enhance professionalism is impeded by the perceived necessity for militancy.

Strengths and Suggestions for Change

A democratic society depends on a well-educated, socially productive citizenry. While the teacher is closely involved in the cognitive and social development of the young, an incalculable benefit to society, any efforts by teachers to raise standards are blocked. Education in the United States is subject to lay control, unlike most professions, and while this sometimes presents problems, constructive cooperation with the public is essential. It would seem, therefore, that a role for educators in the decision-making process at the local level, on boards of education, would serve as an outlet for internal and external concerns about professionalism.

Teachers in the United Kingdom suffer also from a lack of morale. At a time of economic, and consequently social, readjustment, teachers have not fared so well as in past years. Again, society must address change through the schools, and the role of teachers in the process must reflect honor and quality. That role must be part of any national consensus on education; currently, a number of developments are in process with potentially wide implications for teacher education in other countries. Most notable are increasing links between the schools and industry. In the United Kingdom, a renewed sense of purpose has begun to blossom and the direction of the educational system and the position of the teacher within that system are being viewed anew, a development that will provide direction and perhaps change forever the concept of teachers.

Latin American social currents will invariably present a source of despair for educational leaders in the foreseeable future. With area population increasing 2-3% annually, the region is exploding. Consider that 50% of Latin Americans today are below the age of 20 and one can begin to see that the implications for future growth are equally horrific. The impact of this on teachers and the way they are trained will vary, but the importance of the profession will obviously remain high in the estimation of the public. The realities of Latin American society, where many home

conditions are not conducive to learning and where little if any reading material is available, place demands on the teacher training system. There is no doubt that efforts to continue to elevate the level of training will be made (Simmons and Alexander, 1976). Structural changes must be made in accordance with a nation's individual standards, not just reinterpretations of European-American cultural patterns. Though Latin American cultures form a part of Western culture, those cultures encompass ways of life and systems of values different from each other and from European-American models (Beltran).

The content of teacher education programs is another key issue in teacher education today. One suggestion for improvement in the training of teachers in the United States is improvement in the quality of the academic training. This is also a suggestion one finds in the United Kingdom. In both areas, more structured studies could assist teacher candidates in the ability to deal effectively with human need. Understanding the heritage of human thought is essential to comprehending the fundamental problems of living (Stratemeyer, 1956). The academic fields also provide the teacher candidate with essential instructional content. More comprehensive studies allow for a depth of insight and understanding which is basic to helping the child with special interests or abilities. To follow that path "would require a complete revamping of general education requirements emphasizing greater depth and enrichment in content areas for prospective secondary school teachers and comprehensiveness for prospective elementary teachers" (Hermanowicz, 1984).

Appropriate to this improvement of academic quality is the necessity of the professional branch to upgrade the quality of that experience. The methods by which a candidate is supervised while being trained and the proliferation of normal schools of dubious quality are particular problems in Latin America. That these programs may be increasing in duration is a hopeful sign. Increasingly in the United Kingdom there are complaints that there is unnecessary emphasis placed on theory

and not enough on practice, which somewhat parallels the complaint in the United States that there is an overemphasis on theory at the expense of pedagogy. In a study of teachers' perceptions of teacher education, conducted by the Leeds University Institute of Education, teachers felt there needed to be more practice teaching experience in the training process and that there needed to be better supervision and concern with appearance and manner. Those concerns would seem to be hopeful indicators that teachers do share a deep concern for improvements and, even more importantly, suggest means to achieve them (Leeds, 1974). In Latin America one hears more and more about teacher training in the family and culture, economics, vocational training, life and health sciences (Zubiria, 1980). Those suggestions reflect another positive development in Latin America -- meeting local needs through teachers and teacher training. Clinical practica, thoughtful sequencing, microteaching, and upgraded content material are but four possible routes to new developments in teacher education pedagogy in the United States.

The need for a closer relationship between the schools and institutions where teacher training takes place is also evident from examination of the three systems. Without more of a commitment from teacher training schools to provide answers to questions, alternative methods for responding to problems, and professional inservice growth and development, schools may suffer unnecessarily. In the United Kingdom there is debate about a recent decision that teacher trainers should have had recent public school teaching experience. While in theory the idea is of great merit and obvious value, in practice it may be difficult, if indeed possible. If the logistics can be worked out, the idea may have an impact on professional roles for inservice teachers outside the school. Increasingly, training institutions need to work with the schools because the schools provide a rich arena in which to conduct clinical, supervised field experiences. Good cooperating teachers need to

be nurtured and reimbursed for their participation. An interest in inservice training can be seen in the institution of an induction or apprentice year for the first year teacher in the United Kingdom and the United States, a good beginning for ever closer relations between the public schools and teacher training institutions. Needed in Latin America today is a more thorough inservice program for elementary teachers particularly, given the limited nature of teacher training. Additionally, in Latin America, monies need to be made available for professional development in terms of more schooling and professional organizations devoted to educational research and its dissemination.

For the Untied States or the United Kingdom to assist less developed regions like Latin America, as some have suggested, efforts need to take account of different needs associated with the region. Any assistance should be made within the correct frame of reference (Hanna, 1962). Illich (1968) has a particularly pessimistic outlook for Latin American education in this regard because the passing on of foreign values, like the North American social consciousness, can provide explosive results in a region where there is often a repressive atmosphere. Illich advocates a life-long educational emphasis in Latin America with educational functions divided among industrial, political, and social organizations. One point is clear -- before we can assist any country's educational development, we must become aware of that country's economic, social, political and cultural development.

These are only a few of the pertinent analogies and comparisons one may make between these three conceptions of teacher education. Each has its own strengths and weaknesses, its own needs and priorities, its own cultural milieu to fulfill. The way to further analyses has been cleared.

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ON TEACHER EDUCATION IN ICELAND

Gudrun Geirsdottir

Introduction

Systematic teacher education in Iceland dates back to 1908 when the School for Teachers was formally established. Since then teacher education, as well as the educational system, has expanded and undergone major changes. The purpose of this paper is to give a general overview of the educational system, the historical background of teacher education and the development of the two major teacher preparing institutions, the Teachers College and the University of Iceland.

The educational system

> Iceland is a rock in the ocean surrounded by fish - take away the fish and what have you left?
>
> Hans G. Andersen (1976)
> in Thomasson (1980)

Iceland is located in the North Atlantic, the most geographically isolated society in the world. The total population is around 240,000 distributed over an area of 40,000 square miles, half of the population living in the capital city of Reykjavik and nearby areas.

A nation with a population of 240,000 living in a country of nearly the same size as the state of Pennsylvania is faced with educational problems most other nations do not have to deal with. Providing equal educational opportunity to all children in a country where 41.2% of the elementary schools have fewer than 80 students (Palsson, 1983), is not an easy task, although quite often a challenging one.

Regional imbalance of the population also adds to the problem. Iceland is striving to establish an educational system that can both serve the nation's need for educated people and at the same time be financially feasible. This dilemma is reflected in the whole educational system as well as within individual schools.

In 1984, well over a quarter of the entire population were registered as students in schools and institutions under the auspices of the Ministry of Education and Culture. Compulsory schooling for 36,000 children between the ages of 7 and 15 accounts for the greater part of this figure; preschoolers number 4,000; over 10,000 are registered for advanced secondary education and a further 2,000 adults will be studying at the same level. 4,500 students will be attending classes at the University of Iceland; and vocational and special schools account for the rest of the 64,000 total (News from Iceland, 1984).

Generally speaking, all schools in Iceland are under the authority of the Minister of Education and Culture. The administrative system is highly centralized in finance, staffing and the like, but in curriculum and teaching methods the school enjoys great freedom. Some basic decisions are made by the Minister. For instance, the syllabus for the compulsory grades is published directly by the Ministry as a guideline for all schools at that level (Isaksson, 1975).

The Universities, the secondary schools, and most other schools at the upper secondary level are also run and financed directly by the state or with joint participation of the community where the school is located. Public education is provided entirely free of charge for all pupils at all levels. Students are charged for textbooks used after the period of compulsory schooling and a small registration fee is required at the University (Isaksson, 1975).

The state runs a textbook publishing company which publishes textbooks for use within the period of compulsory education. So far, almost all educational material is published by the state, with the exception of foreign material used at higher levels.

The school system in Iceland is in general a three level system (See Figure 1):

Elementary school level - ages 6-15, compulsory.

Secondary school level - ages 16-20, including the grammar school, general

secondary schools (academic and vocational) and a few special vocational schools.

The University level - The University of Iceland, The Teacher Training College, and The Technical College.

The school system in Iceland has been undergoing major changes since 1974, especially on the secondary level, where attempts have been made to establish a general secondary school, providing in a flexible system a wide range of theoretical and practical courses of the present grammar schools and several vocational schools. Those attempts have so far been carried out successfully, eliminating a rather complicated and diverse system of special schools (Isaksson, 1975).

Historical background of teacher education

The first schools in Iceland were established in the 11th century, but it was not until centuries later that the idea of teacher education emerged. In Iceland, teacher education dates back to the last decade of the 19th century. In the year 1790 a resolution was passed from the king of Denmark (and Iceland) stating that every child should start learning to read before his fifth birthday. The child's parents were held responsible for that education and were fined if no teaching had taken place before the child's seventh year (Kristjansdottir, 1979). A minister of the church then traveled from farm to farm, testing children's ability in reading as well as their religious knowledge. In 1880 another resolution was passed, adding writing and arithmetic to every child's education. Still the parents were held responsible and it soon became common to hire "traveling teachers", i.e., a teacher that would travel over the district, teaching at different farms for a few weeks a year. The well to do farmers would; in a sense, set up a mini-school at their farms, taking the children from nearby farms into their home for the duration of instruction (Kristjansdottir, 1979).

Until 1970 a similar traveling system existed in some sparsely populated school districts. It is slowly being replaced by bussing and boarding schools (Geirsdottir, 1984).

From 1870 to 1900 Iceland faced demographic changes in the face of industrial development. Increased population in towns and parents working outside the home called for a different type of schooling. The family could no longer be held completely responsible for their children's education. Schools were established in all towns and the need for teachers became evident (Johannesson, 1983). Some progressive individuals started voicing the need for teacher education but found little consensus among the representatives of the government. In 1889 the Icelandic Teacher's Association was established, its main task to support the claim for a school of teacher education. In 1892-1896 six week courses were held in Hafnarfjordur, a small town close to Reykjavik. In 1896 a whole year course was added to the curriculum - the first actual teacher education in Iceland (Bjornsson, 1981). This course was offered every year until the School for Teachers was finally established in 1908. In the beginning the School for Teachers was a three year school, offering courses 6 months every year. Admission requirements were specified, not based on previous schooling but on admission tests in each subject (Bjornsson, 1981). In 1924 the school year was extended to 7 months a year. In 1943 the school year was extended for an additional month and the program became a four year program. The admission requirements were made the same as those in the grammar schools (i.e., nine years of schooling and passing the national examination or ten years of schooling and another examination). The first two years were considered preparatory. In 1947 new regulations were passed, allowing those with the matriculation examination (i.e., graduates from the gymnasium) to enter the school and take a one year course to be certified. In 1969 the students from gymnasium were required to take two years of study, and finally in 1971 the school was moved entirely up to the university level: the School for Teachers now became the Teacher Training College of Iceland (Bjornsson, 1981).

Preparing teachers - two different systems

In the above discussion the focus has been limited to the historical development of the Teacher Training College of Iceland, and not without a reason. From the very beginning the Teacher Training College has prepared the vast majority of all teachers in Iceland - and for the longest time was the only institution to do so. But other institutions now prepare teachers as well. The University of Iceland has, since 1951, provided a program to prepare teachers for the upper elementary and secondary level (Isaksson, 1984). Finally, although not of consideration in this discussion, certain other special schools prepare teachers in different areas. The School for Teachers of Domestic Science, The School of Arts and Crafts, The Music Conservatory, The School for Teachers of Physical Education, and The School for Preschool Teachers all prepare teachers within their programs but have different admission requirements as well as different numbers of years required for certification (Isaksson, 1975).

Here the focus will only be on the two main teacher preparation institutions in Iceland, i.e., the Teacher Training College and the Program of Teacher certification within the University of Iceland (including a brief discussion on the B.A. degree in Pedagogy).

<u>The Teacher Training College of Iceland</u>. The Teacher Training College of Iceland was by an Act of 1971 formally moved to the university level, requiring graduation from secondary school (i.e., matriculation examination) for admission.

The teachers graduating from the College are qualified and prepared to teach at the elementary level (Grade 1-9). For the last 5-6 years more students have sought admission than can be accepted due to limited housing and staff.

The Teacher Training College is a three year school with a highly uniform and structured curriculum. Students go more or less through the same courses; little specialization is required. The curriculum is divided into three equal parts: a common core in psychology, education and methods, general subjects (including all

subjects taught in the elementary school, i.e., Icelandic, ethics, mathematics, biology, history, anatomy, music, physical education, geology, art, sociology), and two electives, where students in the second year elect any two subjects taught in the elementary school (Kristjansdottir, 1979).

Although students elect subjects, specialization is not extensive and all students have student teaching at the lower as well as the higher elementary level.

Practical student teaching begins with a classroom observation the first semester and gradually expands to a five week independent student teaching at the last semester. Total field experience is 12 weeks.

Since 1978 several new approaches have been tried out in the Teacher Training College. As a school with a long tradition, the curriculum has been criticized for not being suitable to new educational demands and development. The new approaches taken are in the form of greater integration of subjects, more project-oriented instruction, and stronger and more direct relation of instruction to students' practical experience. Since 1980, for example, the first year is a "theme approach" where all subjects, as well as student projects, are integrated and centered around a certain theme (Kennarahaskoli Islands, 1983).

Connected to the Teacher Training College, a laboratory which at the same time serves as a district school, is operated. This school serves the twofold purpose of providing students opportunity to student teach and serving as a research institution for the College, in cooperation with the professors of the school. (Logum Kennarahaskola Islands, 1971).

Teacher Certification Program in the University of Iceland. The Teacher Certification Program was established as a formal program within the Department of Philosophy in 1951, the first students graduating in 1952. The program was set up to serve and prepare students graduating in different fields to become teachers at the upper elementary and secondary level (Isaksson, 1984).

Until 1974 the program was mainly considered an elective addition for those who thought educational courses to be of some worth for teaching. But around 1974, following a general revision of the compulsory and secondary education, critical voices became loud, claiming that teachers at the secondary level, just as those at the elementary level, ought to have minimal knowledge in education and instruction. This criticism led to major structural changes in 1976-1980 and to an Act of 1978 under which Teacher Certification was made a requirement for tenure (Isaksson, 1984).

The structural changes of the Teacher Certification Program were also related to other factors, such as the moving of the program from the Department of Philosophy to the newly established Department of Social Sciences. That move followed University permission to begin for the first time instruction in general education or pedagogy as a subject in the B.A. degree (Isaksson, 1984). The establishment of the Department of Pedagogy or Education opened up possibilities of greater improvement in the Teacher Certification Program by integration of courses and a broader curriculum as well as a new notion of educational thought.

The Teacher Certification Program is now a one year full course (30 credits) and required for tenure. It is taken by all students graduating with B.A., B.S., or M.S. degrees who aim at teaching at the upper elementary or secondary school level.

The program is still under revision but consists in general of three parts: Educational Theories; Theories of Didactic Methods; and Practical Student Teaching. Practical student teaching is 60 hours under the supervision of a selected teacher and university teacher. Time of student teaching is divided equally between elementary and secondary level.

B.A. Degree in Pedagogy (Education). As mentioned above, the University of Iceland gave permission to set up a Department of Pedagogy or Education as a subject for a B.A. degree in 1974. In the very beginning students were only allowed

to take a minor (30 credits) in the field. This option became popular right away and was soon expanded to an option of major (60 credits). In 1980 the Department of Social Sciences permitted students for the first time to study pedagogy as their only major (90 credits) (Isaksson, 1984).

A B.A. degree in Pedagogy does not result in any legalized certificate but is seen as providing a general background for students seeking further graduate education and specialization. The curriculum is a very theoretical one, focusing mainly on theories of instruction, school counseling and supervision.

By 1984, a total of 35 students had graduated with a B.A. degree in Pedagogy from the University of Iceland (Isakson, 1984).

The Inservice System. Until 1970, inservice was not considered a crucial matter in teacher education and development in Iceland.

In 1966 the Unit of Educational Research and Innovation was established within the Ministry of Education and Culture. In 1968 the Unit became a Division of the Ministry. From its beginning,the Division has concentrated its effort on curriculum revision and development at the elementary level. Following the revision of the curriculum, the Division established, in cooperation with the Teacher Training College, an extensive scheme of in-service training (Geirsdottir, 1984).

Since 1974 the Ministry of Education and the Teacher Training College have offered a large number of workshops, courses, and sessions to teachers all over the country. The workshops and sessions have mainly been offered during the summer. Teachers are now required to attend a minimal number of inservice courses and workshops, but all expenses are paid by the state and the school district. The topics of the workshops and sessions range from being very specific (such as the LTG method in reading) to more general ones (Skyrsla um tilbod um fraedsiufundi, 1983).

Since 1971 the Teacher Training College has offered a one year graduate course several times. The course has most often been in special education, but it

has also included courses in measurement and evaluation, and general subjects (Kristjansdottir, 1979).

All students with a B.Ed. degree from the Teacher Training College are, by law, to be offered supervision during their first year of teaching. The District office, in accordance with school principals' suggestion, is to provide each new teacher with a cooperating teacher. To my best knowledge the practice of this mandated quest is arbitrary.

Beyond the Two Systems

Until fairly recently the division between the Teacher Training College and the educational program within the University of Iceland was not based only on different types of certificates and preparation for different school levels; they were far apart with almost a mutual dislike. This "apartheid"-like relation could be partially explained by the teacher union system. Teachers at the two different school levels do not belong to the same union, do not receive the same wages and hold different instructional as well as professional responsibilities. Teachers at the secondary level have tended to, at best, ignore the instruction taking place at the elementary level, seeing their own task as more "academic" than educational. Elementary teachers, holding a lower status in terms of wages and autonomy, accuse the secondary teachers of both ignorance and arrogance.

Recently, some visible regression seems to have taken place. In 1979 the Icelandic Teachers Association was reestablished. The association now serves as a professional association for teachers at all levels. Since its reestablishment, the association has by annual meetings brought together teachers at all levels and reinforced communication and cooperation among teachers.

Increased cooperation among the two teacher preparation institutions has also served to reunite teachers at different school levels as well as improving the

instruction and preparation of students within each institution. The Act of 1971 on the Teacher Training College required the College to operate an Educational Research Institution jointly with the University of Iceland. The Institute was finally formally established (i.e., granted financial support) in 1982 and will hopefully serve to strengthen the cooperation between the institutions, as well as to strengthen educational development in Iceland.

Conclusion

In the very beginning of this paper, I described Iceland's small population and its distribution as being the main educational problem as well as challenge of the Icelandic educational system. This very challenge is reflected in the teacher preparation system.

Although highly centralized, the educational system at the same time requires teachers to be autonomous. Of course, we'll find in Iceland teachers that have not altered their instruction in 30 years, but those who do not follow that pattern need to be innovative. An Icelandic teacher must be prepared to create his own curriculum, often without any outside assistance - he might not even find one suitable textbook. While one teacher is dealing with a class of 35 children, another is trying to suit his instruction to 15 children age 7-10. So teaching, although a difficult task, can be a challenge to those who like being innovative.

Having only two institutions to prepare teachers for such varying teaching conditions can also be limiting (especially when the two institutions are not on cooperative terms). The Teacher Training College and The Teacher Certification Program have both tried to solve the task by being rather general and theoretical in their curriculum approach, hoping that their students will graduate with a strong enough theoretical framework to assimilate special conditions in the real world.

A small educational system like the one in Iceland needs the cooperation of not only its teacher preparation institutions but all its teachers and educational administrators, as well. Recent trends in Iceland seem to indicate that those concerned have come to realize that need.

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